THE STEMOURAPHER'S MANUAL

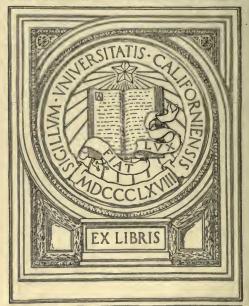
A

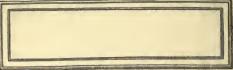
000 569 945

9

EDW RD J. KILDU F

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES





UNIVERSE READER TOWNS

Digitized by the Internet Archive in 2007

By

EDWARD JONES KILDUFF, M.A.

Professor of Business English, New York University
Author of The Private Secretary

Co-author of the
Handbook of Business English



47085

HARPER & BROTHERS PUBLISHERS
NEW YORK AND LONDON
1921

Copyright, 1921, by Harper & Brothers Printed in the United States of America

Z 56 K 55s

The state of the s	
INTRODUCTION By George E. Roberts	PAGE VII
INTRODUCTION DI GEORGE E. ROBERTS	VII
PREFACE	ix
I. THE QUALITIES OF A GOOD STENOG-	
· RAPHER °	
Your Chances of Success	1
What a Stenographer Should Be Able to	
Do	2
Qualities That Make a Stenographer a Good	
Stenographer	5
The Good Stenographer Is Accurate	5
Necessity for Self-analysis	6
Are You Accurate?	7
The Good Stenographer Has an Agreeable	
Personality	9
The Good Stenographer Is Trustworthy	12
The Good Stenographer Is Diligent	13
A Good Stenographer Has, Judgment	15
Good Deportment in the Office	16
II. YOUR CONDUCT IN THE OFFICE	
Office Rules Should Be Observed	17
Be Punctual	19
Attendance	20
Using the Telephone for Personal Calls	21
"Visiting" in the Office	21
The Proper Attitude Toward Your Work.	22

CHAPTER		
CHAPTER	Conduct Toward Other Workers	PAGE 23
	Your Personal Appearance	23
***		,,,,
III.	WHEN YOU TAKE DICTATION	
	The Importance of Taking Dietation Right	25
	Be Prepared	25
	Your Manner When Taking Dietation	27
	Points on Taking Dietation.	28
	Carefully Note Instructions	30
IV.	TRANSCRIBING AND TYPING	
	You Are Judged by Your Completed Work	32
	Accuracy in Transcription	33
	Why You Should Be Up on Your Grammar	34
	Editing Dietated Material	35
	Paragraphing the Letter	36
	Punetuation and Capitalization	36
	Always Read Over Your Work	36
	The Appearance of Your Work	37
	Making Erasures and Changes	37
	Keep Your Machine in Good Condition	39
	Don't Dispute with the Dietator	40
	Taking Care of Your Notebooks	40
	Office Supplies	40
. V.	THE MECHANICAL MAKE-UP OF THE	
	LETTER	
	Know and Use Good Mechanical Make-up	42
	Placing the Letter on the Page	43
	The Parts of the Mechanical Make-up of a	
	Letter	46
	The Heading	46
	The Inside Address	48

HAPTER		PAGE
	The Salutation	57
	The Body of the Letter	58
	The Complimentary Close	60
	The Signature	60
	Miscellaneous Points	62
	The Envelope	63
	Official Letters	64
	Formal Official Letters	66
	Informal Official Letters	66
	The Mechanical Display of Reports	66
T7T	A DOLLAR MOLID ADDITING	
VI.	ABOUT YOUR SPELLING	
	The Importance of Correct Spelling	71
	Technical and Trade Words	73
	Words Spelled Correctly in Two or More	
,	Ways	73
	Foreign Words and Phrases Commonly	
	Used in English	78
	Plurals of Foreign Words	81
	Words That Have the Same or Nearly the	
	Same Sound	82
	Words Commonly Misspelled	89
	Words Ending in "-able" or "-ible"	92
	Spelling of Possessives	94
	Forming the Plural of Figures, Letters,	
	Signs, Etc	95
	When and When Not to Spell Out Num-	
	bers, Amounts, and Sums	96
	Dividing Words at the Ends of the Lines.	100
	Compound or Hyphenated Words	103
	Use of Abbreviations	107
	After You Have Finished the Work	113

	OOMITMID	
VII.	COMMON MISUSES OF WORDS	PAGE 114
VIII.	HOW TO PUNCTUATE AND CAPITAL-	
	IZE	
	The Ability to Punetuate Correctly	133
	What Punetuation Is	134
	Uses of the Comma	134
	Uses of the Semicolon	141
	Uses of the Colon	142
	Uses of the Period	144
	Uses of the Exclamation Point	145
	Uses of the Dash	146
	Uses of Parentheses	147
	Uses of Brackets	148
	Uses of Quotation Marks	148
	Punetuation of Quoted or Parenthetical	
	Material	150
	Uses of the Apostrophe	151
	Uses of the Question Mark	153
	Uses of the Hyphen	153
	Other Punetuation	155
	Good Style in Punctuation	155
	Capitalization	156
IX.	MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION	
	Points About Telephoning	160
	Telegrams	163
	Use of Proof Marks to Indicate Corrections	100
	or Changes	163
	Keep Your Desk in Good Order	
	Study Your Employer's Business	

INTRODUCTION

BY

GEORGE E. ROBERTS

Vice-President of the National City Bank of New York City

Teamwork is one of the big needs of business. If consistently efficient results are to be secured, each department of a business organization must work in harmony with every other department, and each worker with his coworker. The best efforts of one department or of one worker can easily be nullified by the inefficiency of another.

Having thus stated a generally recognized principle of good business, I wish to apply it specifically to the relationship between the dictator and his stenographer. I may perform my share of the task involved in the writing of a letter by carefully dictating what I wish to say, but if my stenographer is not wholly accurate and dependable in transcribing her notes—her share of this mutual work—the effectiveness of my letter suffers. Through carelessness she has made me appear to say things I did not say, she has inclined my reader to the belief that I am ungrammatical, and by her inaccuracies in typing she has caused my letter to make an unfavorable impression. Is this teamwork?

Letter writing is an important function in business, and is becoming of greater importance because of the fact that the transactions carried on by means of letters are rapidly increasing in number. The personal contact between a business house and its customers that existed in former years is being supplanted by a contact by letters. And all this means that we must to-day make our letters more efficient. To do so we must enlist the co-operation of our

INTRODUCTION

stenographers to perform efficiently their share of the work of getting out good letters—letters that are accurate in transcription, correct in spelling, grammar, and punctua-

tion, and pleasing in appearance.

For many years I have realized that the work of the stenographer is not so unimportant as it is sometimes thought to be. Any business man can tell you of the satisfaction he enjoys in dictating to a good stenographer, knowing, as he does, that he can sign his name to his letters without being compelled to read them word by word to make sure that they are correct in all respects. This same business man can tell you that he is saved much time and worry because he knows he can depend upon his stenographer. And if the saving of time and worry is not important to a business man, then nothing else is.

In glaneing over the proof-sheets of this book which Professor Kilduff has written, I was glad to note that he has placed so much emphasis upon accuracy. It seems to me that this is a quality that is indispensable in a stenographer, for certainly if a stenographer is inaccurate in her work, she cannot be of much assistance to her employer. Upon him falls the burden of correcting her work—work that should be correct. And then the letter usually must be retyped. All this added effort can be saved if the stenographer will take pains to see that her work is done right the

first time.

Professor Kilduff's book will be of much help to the ambitious stenographer who will read and put into practice the ideas that are presented in it. I believe it will go far in making stenographers realize how much their co-operation is needed in business, and in teaching them how to do their share of the work in helping the dictator to put out better letters.

PREFACE

To Stenographers, Typists, and Dictating-machine Operators:

This book was written to help you in your work, to aid you to do better work, and to assist you in making yourself a success in your chosen vocation. Read it carefully, study it, and put into practice the information it gives you. Keep it handy in your desk and refer to it as you would to a dictionary. And every now and then read it again, so that you will always have fresh in your mind a knowledge of those points in which the business man expects a good stenographer to be proficient.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I WISH to acknowledge my indebtedness for information concerning the attitude of business concerns toward the work of the stenographer to various officers, office managers, and chief stenographers of the following business houses: National City Bank of New York, United States Steel Products Company, S. S. Kresge Company, General Cigar Co., Inc., United States Rubber Co., Vacuum Oil Company, American Chicle Co., The American Sugar Refining Company, John Wanamaker, Brunswick-Balke-Collender Co., Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., The New

PREFACE

Jersey Zinc Company, Ideal Cocoa & Chocolate Company, Proctor and Gamble Distributing Co., and the Chase National Bank.

Much of the material on the mechanical make-up of letters, punctuation, and capitalization is taken from the *Handbook of Business English*, by Hotchkiss and Kilduff.

E. J. K.

NEW YORK CITY, August 15, 1920.



Chapter I

The Qualities of a Good Stenographer

Your Chances of Success

Whether you look upon stenography and typewriting as a trade or vocation from which you are to secure your living or whether you consider this work as a stepping stone to advancement in business, you should give some consideration to your chances of success in this field.

Do you wish to make more money? Then remember that a business house will pay you according to your value to the house and is only too glad to pay more money if

you increase your value—if you do better work.

Do you wish to advance in business—to secure a more responsible position? If so, remember that you must show by your efficiency in your present position that you have mastered it and that you are, therefore, probably capable of mastering the next higher position.

Many workers in business seem unable to realize the fact that they cannot expect higher pay or promotion until they do better work. They often say to themselves, "I should do better work if they would pay me more

money." But that is reversing the natural process. The rule in business is, "Prove by doing better work that you are worth more and you will get it." But the proof must come first. You must first show your ability.

Some of these same people say that ability is not recognized and appreciated in business. Such a statement is absolutely unsound, for in business, above all other places, ability is keenly sought and well paid for. No concern could long remain in business, facing the fierce competition of to-day, were it not for the ability of its workers. It is nearly as difficult to hide ability in business as it is to hide a light on a dark night. Ability is too rare and too valuable a thing not to be recognized and appreciated. But do not think that the employer is unselfish in this matter—he is not. He knows how valuable to him and to his business are the services of an efficient and able worker. So bear in mind, then, this fact: If you will train yourself to do your work well, you need not worry about not being rewarded.

Your success as a stenographer is assured if you will resolve here and now to become a *good* stenographer. The efficient, well-trained stenographer has an exceedingly easy time in securing a good position at any time, for the demand for really good stenographers is far greater than the supply. There are plenty of medioere and ordinary stenographers, but very few good ones. The first step toward your success can be taken by you now: Resolve to be a *good* stenographer.

What a Stenographer Should Be Able to Do

Disregarding for the time being her other duties, the work of the stenographer can be divided into two parts: stenography and typewriting. Proficiency in each of these

two fields constitutes the chief stock in trade of the stenographer; or, in other words, the stenographer is hired because she can take dictation and transcribe it on the typewriter.

Proficiency in stenography means the ability to take dictation as rapidly as the dictator gives it—and to take it accurately. You will note that the proficiency in stenography is made up of two things-speed and accuracy. You will also note that speed does not necessarily mean the ability to take 80 or 120 or 150 words a minute. If you can take dictation as fast as your dictator gives it, you are proficient—at least so far as he is concerned. If you hold back your dictator you must practice to develop more speed.

Accuracy in taking down dictation means that you make no mistakes that can be justly charged against you. In fact, accuracy is more important than speed, for if there is anything a dictator dislikes it is the reading of his letter in which what he has dictated is incorrectly reported. He does not mind very much being asked to dictate a little more slowly (often it flatters him), provided the stenographer is accurate. Above all things train yourself to be accurate in setting down what the dictator has said. No other quality is more appreciated in a stenographer than accuracy. Do not sacrifice accuracy to speed.

The same fact is true with respect to transcription or typewriting: accuracy is more important than speed. What is the good of typing the letter fast if, on account of errors in it, it either has to be retyped or is sent out with a number of corrections written in? Do it right the

first time even though you don't do it so fast.

Good transcribing means much more than the accurate typing of the stenographic notes. It includes such matters as these: a knowledge of the mechanical operation of

the typewriter, as, for instance, how to prevent the paper from slipping, so that good work may result; a knowledge of the correct mechanical make-up of the letter and other business forms; the ability to place the typing on the page so that it will look good; neatness in the appearance of the finished work; correct spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and the proper breaking of words at the ends of the lines, and a good working knowledge of grammar and rhetoric.

The stenographer must know all these things about her work and many more. The knowledge of and the ability to use the knowledge of these matters constitute her stock in trade; and the greater her knowledge and the better her ability, the greater and better stock has she to sell and the more will be the pay for this stock. Certainly, if she expects to succeed in her field of work and get better pay and promotion, she must master the use of the tools of her trade. Yet how many girls are there in business who can do these things well—these things which every stenographer who calls herself a stenographer should be able to do with 100 per cent efficiency? Exceedingly few, if we are to believe what most business men tell us.

Stenography and typewriting are not difficult subjects to learn. Any bright girl can make herself fairly proficient in them within six months' time—and quite expert, if she sufficiently applies herself, within a year. Such a matter as spelling, for example, is not hard to learn, and even if you aren't quite sure of the correct spelling, you can look it up in a minute in your dictionary. Yet incorrect spelling is one of the most common errors.

The rules of punctuation and capitalization are few and simple, and no stenographer who has spent a little time in studying them should ever have much difficulty with

them. But mistakes in these two matters are continually

cropping up in letters.

All these subjects, to repeat, are not difficult to master. Carelessness, more than ignorance, is responsible for most of the errors in them. But carelessness is as bad a fault as ignorance. You can make yourself a stenographer among stenographers merely by mastering these subjects that you have seen are so easy to learn, and by being careful, because the great majority of stenographers either haven't mastered them or haven't learned to be careful.

Qualities That Make a Stenographer a Good Stenographer

A stenographer may be efficient in stenography and typewriting, but yet she may not be a good stenographer. It may be that her personality is such that she cannot get along with her fellow workers; or she may be found to be untrustworthy—she may have disclosed business secrets to outsiders. You can see, therefore, that the good stenographer must possess, in addition to her ability to take dictation and to transcribe well, certain personal qualities. These qualities are as follows:

1. Accuracy.

2. Agreeable personality.

3. Trustworthiness.

4. Diligence.

5. Judgment.

6. Good deportment.

The Good Stenographer Is Accurate

Although all the six qualities mentioned above are essential, the one which the employer values most in a

stenographer is, probably, the quality of accuracy. A stenographer is accurate if her work is free from mistakes, if she takes pains to make sure that what she does or has done is correct. The accurate stenographer holds herself

responsible for the correctness of her work.

Just think how pleased an employer is to have a stenographer whose work is accurate! No longer is he compelled to read earefully every letter he has dictated, making a correction in spelling here and in punctuation there. No longer does he find the ideas he so carefully thought out and dictated appearing before him in the typed letter unrecognizable. He can now sign his letters with a free mind. He knows, too, that the right inclosures will go with the letter; that any changes or additions he may have made will be correctly copied on the earbon copies of the letter; and that any special directions he may have given concerning the letter will be accurately executed. An accurate stenographer can save her chief a great deal of time and worry—and he appreciates it, perhaps more than you think.

Inaccuracy is the most common defect among stenographers. It holds more back from advancement in salary and position than does any other defect. Lack of sufficient training is sometimes the cause of inaccuracy, but care-

lessness is usually the eause of it.

Necessity for Self-analysis

Most of us can easily see the faults in other persons, but few of us can see our own faults. The ambitious stenographer must be able to take an inventory of herself to determine just what her defects are. None of us is perfect; faults exist in every one of us. Isn't it better that you should find out what is wrong with yourself, so

that you can correct it, than to be held back by faults that you don't see or don't care to see, yet which the employer sees? No stenographer can be a success until she has analyzed herself, found out her shortcomings, and taken steps to remedy them.

You have had enough experience in life to know that few persons outside your immediate family will criticize you, your work, your manners, etc., to your face, though they may and probably do behind your back. To you alone is given the privilege and responsibility of making yourself. And since others don't tell you your faults, you must find them out for yourself.

The necessity for self-analysis is, therefore, ever present. You want to make yourself a success, you want to make your life a success. So you should continually strive to improve yourself, and honest self-examination will show

you wherein to make yourself better.

Are You Accurate?

You now know that accuracy is a very valuable quality of a stenographer. Suppose that you were asked this question, "Are you accurate?" Without much thinking you might say, "Yes." But are you? To find out, examine yourself now by giving an honest answer to each of the following questions:

1. Do you make mistakes in taking dictation? How often?

Are these mistakes caused by inability to take dictation as rapidly as the dictator gives it? By lack of training? By

carelessness on your part?

3. If you don't understand what the dictator said, do you ask him to repeat it or do you "take a chance" that in reading the typed letter he won't notice that you didn't get his exact wording?

- 4. In typing the letter, do you make mistakes because of inability to read your own notes? What is the reason—carelessness when you made the notes or carelessness in reading them?
- 5. Do you make frequent erasures in your letter? Why—care-lessness in typing or carelessness in spelling?

6. How many mistakes do you make in spelling? What is the reason—lack of training or carelessness?

7. If you aren't sure of the spelling of a word do you look it up in a dictionary, or do you sometimes take the chance that you have spelled it correctly?

8. Do you make mistakes in punctuation?
9. Do you know the rules of punctuation?

- 10. If, when you are transcribing your notes on the typewriter, you find some notes that you don't understand, do you ask the dictator what he said or are you afraid to expose your carelessness and make the second mistake of typing a jumble of words which do not convey the sense as the dictator gave it to you?
- 11. Do you ever put the wrong inclosures in the letter? Or leave inclosures out?

If you rarely make these mistakes you are accurate; otherwise you are not.

And in reading the questions did you notice how often carelessness is the cause of the error? This fact should show you that, above all things, you must always be on your guard against carelessness. Remember that stenography and typewriting are exact subjects, like arithmetic, for instance. One mistake in multiplying one set of figures by another set means that the answer is wrong. One mistake in taking dictation or in transcribing means that your letter is incorrect. Strive to be 100 per cent accurate.

Never let the employer find mistakes in your work. If you do make any mistakes find them yourself, and correct them. For example, if you are asked to do some copying, go over your work after you have finished it, and carefully

compare it with the original from which you are copying. Make certain that your work is correct before you hand it in.

The Good Stenographer Has an Agreeable Personality

The second quality that the good stenographer possesses is an agreeable personality. At first glance it may not be clear why this quality is so important. After a little thought, however, you will see that the qualities under discussion are being considered from the employer's point of view. Why is it, then, that the employer values this quality in his stenographers? For one thing—because he has learned from experience that a stenographer who has a disagreeable personality can cause much trouble among the office force. In fact, she is known in business as a "trouble maker." Among the things she does to make herself disliked are these: she carries tales, she criticizes her fellow workers behind their backs, she is discourteous, she is dissatisfied with her job-and doesn't care who knows it. The result is that she causes others to become dissatisfied, arouses friction among her fellow workers, and the office is no longer a pleasant place to work in. Is it any wonder that the employer, afraid that she will entirely disrupt his office organization, requests her to resign? Such a case, although not uncommon, is, however, rather extreme.

Agreeable personality is made up of courtesy, cheerfulness, and the inclination to be agreeable to people. Courtesy is more than the use of polite expressions—it is the sincere regard for, and consideration of, the other person's feelings. Suppose, for instance, that a dictator said to a stenographer, "Miss Blank, will you take dictation,

please?" and the stenographer said: "Just a minute. I want to finish this letter." In such a case the stenographer is not eourteous, for she is placing her own convenience ahead of the dietator's. Or suppose that during the time she is taking dictation the dictator pauses to eonsider what to say. If she nervously taps her peneil on the desk and thereby distracts the dictator, she is diseourteous, for she is not eonsiderate of his feelings.

In the two instances just mentioned, and, for that matter, in most instances, the stenographer intended no diseourteous aet. Indeed, she was probably uneonscious of the fact that her actions were in any way annoying to the dietator. If the situation were explained to her she would probably say, "I didn't think that it would annoy him." And that is just the point! Few people try to be discourteous. Most acts of discourtesy occur because some one "did not think."

The good stenographer is ehecrful and because she is eheerful she is liked. The "grouehy" stenographer is disliked both by her employer and by her fellow workers. It will pay the ambitious stenographer to train herself to be consistently cheerful. By "consistently cheerful" is meant that she should be eheerful not only when work is slack, but also when she is working under pressure or is asked to stay late. Many a stenographer, otherwise eheerful, has injured herself by becoming sulky when she was asked to finish some letters after business hours or to do some work that she doesn't like to do. She shows her petulance by spitefully hammering the keys of the typewriter. She indicates by her manner that she knows she is being imposed upon. Such a mood irritates the employer to a great extent and creates in his mind a decidedly unfavorable opinion. If you are ever asked to stay late to finish some work, do it with good grace even though

at heart you may feel disappointed at not getting out on time. Such work is important, or otherwise the employer would not ask you to stay. And since you have to stay, make the best of it, put on a good face, and do the work cheerfully. You will never regret it, for it is in just such an occasion that the employer is able to see how much better you are than the average stenographer.

Many stenographers are far too sensitive. If the chief speaks harshly they immediately retire for a cry or become very cold and distant to him. If the employer should ever criticize your work or speak sharply to you, don't be sensitive and show your resentment. Keep your good nature, be cheerful, and forget it as soon as possible. You are in business—not at a social gathering—and you must take these things as they come. If you "nurse" your resentment you will only make matters harder for yourself. Remember that the chief has his troubles, too, and did not mean to speak in such a manner. Of course this does not excuse his fault, although he probably is sorry the moment after the words have left his mouth. It is better for you and for all concerned that you be big enough to overlook it and to proceed with your work as if nothing unusual had occurred.

Analyze yourself to find out whether you can improve your personality. These questions will help you:

- 1. Do you feel that you are liked by your fellow workers, and do you get along well with everyone in the office?
- 2. Do you try to make yourself liked, by being agreeable?
- Are you consistently courteous and agreeable to your fellow workers?
- 4. Are you consistently cheerful, or do you have "blues" and "grouches"?
- 5. When you are overburdened with work do you become vexed and irritated, or do you still try to keep cheerful?

- 6. When you have to stay late to finish some work, do you allow your vexation to show?
- 7. If you are criticized, do you resent it?
- If your employer or any other superior speaks harshly, do you flare up or show your resentment in other ways?
- 9. Do you cause anguish to others by thoughtless gossip about them?
- 10. Do you grumble about the work you do, or make others dissatisfied with their work? Are you jealous and suspicious of the chief's seeming preferences for fellow workers?

The Good Stenographer Is Trustworthy

The stenographer is in a position of confidence, and she should recognize it as such. Whatever she learns from her dictation or from her position of trust in the office she should consider confidential, and should not speak of it to others—not even to other people in the office. Much trouble has been caused in business offices by stenographers telling one another information of a confidential nature. Don't gossip about the contents of your letters or about what you heard the employer say. Be discreet; keep these things to yourself. Show your chief that you are discreet, that you can keep a secret, that you are worthy of trust—do these things and the chief will rely more and more on you, secure in the knowledge that you can be trusted.

The good stenographer is loyal to her chief. In all her actions she has the best interests of her chief at heart and he knows that he can place implicit trust in her. She may know his faults and shortcomings, but she keeps them to herself—she never disparages him to others, but sticks up for him when others disparage him.

The good stenographer is reliable. Her chief can trust her to do her work without supervision. If he leaves the office he knows that she will go on doing her work as if

he were there. She is reliable in her work, in her statements, and in her conduct.

Are you trustworthy? To find out, answer these questions:

- Do you ever talk to outsiders or to others in your office (except for business reasons) about the contents of your letters?
- 2. Have you always kept to yourself everything that you learned from or about your employer?
- 3. Do you ever criticize your employer to others?
- 4. When your chief was out of the office have you worked as if he were there?
- 5. Suppose you are the employer. Would you now say that you had always been discreet, that whatever you said or did was to his best interests?

The Good Stenographer Is Diligent

Diligence is a quality that business always admires and values highly. Any worker who is diligent, already bears the stamp of success. Witness the fact that both men and women who have made successes in business possess this quality to a marked degree.

Diligence means energy, industry, and steady application. It suggests the worker who is always "on the job" eager to do her work, who does her work, does it well, and looks for more. It suggests the worker who does not have to be watched—one who will work just as industriously when the chief is away as when the chief is there, and one who takes an interest in her work and in the work of the business. Is it any wonder that employers cannot get enough of such workers and that such workers rise rapidly in business?

The good stenographer is that kind of worker. She is energetic; she is industrious—not only during the first week or two on the new job, but all the time. Whenever

she is given letters to transcribe she immediately starts work and keeps at it until they are done. There is no dawdling around, no carrying on of conversations with others, no "visiting." She attacks her work with zest and finishes it as quickly as she can. Then she applies herself to the next piece of work. If the chief has nothing for her she attends to her filing; or, if she has no filing to do, she cleans her machine or sharpens her peneils or works at any other of the many things that she can do. She is always caught up with her work and ready for more work. She is an industrious, hard-working stenographer—for a time—and then you next find her as somebody's private secretary, or as assistant chief stenographer, or chief stenographer, or in charge of an office department.

Lack of diligence is one of the most common and worst faults found with stenographers as a general elass-not that they are lazy, but they often seem to lack ambition; they are indifferent; they apparently don't care whether business keeps or not. Many an otherwise capable girl is paid less than she might get and is kept back from advancement because she is not industrious. Even though we may grant that many stenographers look upon their occupation as temporary while they are waiting for marriage, is it wise for them to get into the habit of letting their work "slide"? And it does become a habit very quickly. Once the stenographer lets herself go, once she begins to become slack in her work, she rapidly goes downhill to join that vast throng of mediocrc stenographers who do just as little as they can and must be watched to see that they do that little. After all, there is a great personal satisfaction in knowing that your work is well done and that you are thought highly of because of your efficiency.

Above all things, keep up with your work. Go after it

with energy and with the desire to do it and do it well. Then turn to something else. But keep active, keep doing things—it is the only way to keep out of the rut of indolence.

To find out whether you are diligent or not, answer these questions:

1. Do you waste time in starting to do your work?

2. Do you practically have to force yourself to start work?

3. Do you dawdle over your work and allow yourself to "take things easy"?

4. Do you try to get your work done as quickly as possible?

- 5. Do you allow others, for no good reason, to interrupt you in your work?
- 6. Are you easy on yourself? Do you make excuses to yourself for not working at high speed?
- 7. When the chief is away do you take your time in doing your work?
- 8. Do you work as diligently now as you did during your first week in your present position?
- 9. Are you always caught up with your work, or are there odds and ends of work lying about now, such as some back filing, which you are planning to do but never seem to get to?

10. Do you put off doing work that ought to be done? Do you have to be asked a second time to do a thing?

A Good Stenographer Has Judgment

Too many stenographers are "mechanical"; that is, they do their work in a mechanical way, like an automaton, and do not "use their heads." They believe that if they take dictation fairly well, and transcribe it just as it was given, they are doing their work efficiently. But this is not true, as you know. Oftentimes the dictator makes a slip in grammar, word-use, or statement that should be caught and corrected—and will be—by the girl who is alert and thinking. Sometimes the dictator forgets to

give the stenographer the right inclosure—but if she is watchful she will detect this mistake and see to it that she does get the proper inclosure. Or, again, he may overlook asking to have a letter placed in the follow-up file; but the stenographer who has judgment will know what to do.

The good stenographer is constantly striving, while she is typing, to have everything correct. She is on her guard to prevent errors creeping into her work, she takes a personal pride in having her work right, and she is just as eager as the dietator that each letter should go out neat, elean, and free of mistakes. She uses judgment while she is typing. She makes certain that the letter makes sense throughout—and if her notes don't make sense she either asks the dictator for information or she exercises her discretion and judgment in working out the right meaning.

Good Deportment in the Office

Good deportment has to do with actions, manners, and conduct in the office. Too often the stenographer overlooks the importance of such matters, perhaps because they have never been brought to her attention. Yet an otherwise good stenographer may be thought less of by her employer on account of the fact that she either is carcless of how she conducts herself, or does not realize the bad impression she makes by her unbusinesslike manners. So important is this subject that the next chapter, "Your Conduct in the Office," is given over entirely to a detailed discussion of it.

Chapter II

Your Conduct in the Office

Office Rules Should Be Observed

NEARLY every business office has a set of rules that have been laid down for the purpose of standardizing the routine of the office and making the office run efficiently. If you were in charge of an office you would probably put these same rules into effect yourself, for you would then appreciate why they are needed if the office is to be run right and not in a haphazard, happy-go-lucky fashion.

Some stenographers feel that these rules do not apply to them and that it doesn't make much difference, anyway, if they don't observe them. Such ideas are wrong and will only lead to trouble. The rules apply to all, and no girl should consider that she is an exception. She should never, by her failure to observe them, compel the office manager or chief stenographer to "call her down" for breaking them. And it does make a lot of difference whether she observes them or not. She may not know it at the time—she may even think that she is "getting away with it"—but her conduct seldom escapes the observation of those in authority, with the result that she comes into disfavor with them.

The stenographer often makes such a mistake because she does not appreciate the necessity for such rules. For

example, in your office there may be a rule against using the telephone for personal calls, except for important reasons. You may say to yourself: "Why, that's a foolish and unjust rule. What difference can it make if I use the telephone just once or twice a day?" The answer is that just one or two ealls wouldn't make much difference. But if you have the right to use the telephone for personal ealls, so have the other girls. And then it does make a difference. Besides, you leave your work to do the telephoning, you distract others near the telephone, and just when you are earrying on your very interesting conversation the chief may be waiting to give you dietation or to get that letter that you left unfinished in your machine. You may retort: "I would use the telephone only when I had a few slack minutes. I wouldn't interfere with the work of the office." But the answer to that is, you may be discreet, but how about others? If everyone were discreet and made sure that her actions didn't interfere with the work of the office, there would be no need for any rules. But everyone is not so discreet as you are; hence, office rules were made.

Often the office rules are a source of annoyance to the girls. They feel that they aren't being trusted to do the proper thing. If you are annoyed by the fact that your office has rules, please remember that not all girls can be trusted, that office efficiency demands rules, and that they exist for the benefit of all. How would you feel, if there were no office rules about punctuality, to be on time yourself every day and then see another girl come in ten or fifteen minutes late every other day without anything being said to her? You wouldn't like it, would you? After a while you would probably say, "If she can do it, I have the right to do it," and all the other girls would say the same thing. Then, the first thing you know,

everyone would be coming in ten or fifteen minutes late. What kind of office would that be then?

No matter what others do about the rules, you stick by them. You will often see other girls disregarding them, and, because you may see no action taken in their cases, you may think that their infractions of the rules are being overlooked. And that fact may make you dissatisfied and may tempt you to do the same. But don't think it! Such things are seen and taken note of. And some day, when such a girl is least expecting it, the result shows up: she may ask for more salary and be refused; she may be passed by at the time raises are made; she may lose an opportunity to be advanced; or she may be asked to resign. She is not the kind of employee that benefits an office—and those in authority know it. So, no matter what others do, observe your office rules. Some day you will be glad that you did.

Be Punctual

One of the chief office rules is that regarding punctuality. Violations of this rule probably cause more trouble than the violation of any other rule: first, because they are so common; and second, because they disrupt the efficient operation of the office so much. How would you feel if you were a dictator and got down to the office on time, only to find that you had to wait ten or fifteen minutes until your stenographer arrived? How would you feel toward an employee, if you were running a business, and found that that employee was often late, was not working during the time for which you were paying him? After all, however, there are three big reasons why you should be punctual: first, because, especially in the morning, there usually is work waiting to be done

which should not be held up; second, because your lateness may make other girls feel that they have a right to be late; and third, because for your own benefit punc-

tuality is a good habit.

Of course it's hard to be on time. But it is just as hard for others as it is for you. Train yourself to get up in plenty of time to make your toilet properly and to eat a good breakfast. Don't lie in bed until the very last moment, then jump up, rush through dressing, eat a hasty and seanty breakfast, and just get to the office on time. You can't work well if you eat breakfast like that, and your hurrying is not doing you any good. Get up so that you will have ample time for these things.

Another infraction of the punctuality rule occurs at lunch time. Many girls impose on their employers by taking an extra ten or fifteen minutes at this time. This is not right. You know the length of time you are allowed for luncheon; so don't take any more. Be back at your desk ready to start your work on time. This also applies to rest periods. And at night, don't elip off five or ten minutes from your leaving time. Remember that you are in business, that your time is bought and paid for; so be businesslike, be punctual, and give to the office the time that you are paid to give. You need not be reminded that such matters are noted and that every lateness adds a black mark to your record.

Attendance

Some stenographers stay home or away from work on the slightest provocation, and often because of imaginary ailments. Perhaps they do not realize that their absence means an increased burden on the other stenographers in the office or that it may prevent one or more dictators

from getting their work done. Be careful and conscientious in this matter. Keep as good an attendance record as you possibly can. The girl who is frequently absent is not dependable, for her attendance can never be depended upon, and sooner or later she must be replaced.

If you are unable, on account of sickness or for any other good reason, to go to the office, at least telephone to the office and let them know so that other arrangements

can be made to take care of your work.

Using the Telephone for Personal Calls

Do not use the office telephone during business hours for your own personal calls except in cases of real importance. Your telephoning may distract others from their work, and, moreover, such actions are not considered businesslike. In addition, discourage your friends and acquaintances from telephoning to you at the office. Very often such calls interrupt the dictator or make you stop your work. The office is a place of business; it is not your home, and therefore you should not expect to be allowed the same amount of freedom. Many stenographers get themselves into disfavor because of these calls.

"Visiting" in the Office

"Visiting" in the office is a harmful practice, both to you personally and to the efficiency of the office. By "visiting" is meant the carrying on of conversations with other workers in your office on matters not strictly relevant to the business. For example, a stenographer on her way to her desk, after having taken dictation, passes by the desk of a friend or acquaintance and pauses to talk about such a topic as dress, what they did last night, or where

they are going for the week-end. The temptation to do this is very great, but the good stenographer will avoid it because she knows that she is wasting time when she ought to be working, that she is eausing another worker to waste business time, and that the conversation is likely to annoy or distract others. She also knows that such "visiting" is a violation of good business conduct—it is out of place in the office. When you are in business, be businesslike.

The Proper Attitude Toward Your Work

One of the most common eritieisms made by business men against stenographers as a general class is that they are not businesslike, that they do not have the proper attitude toward their work. This critieism is probably a sound one and is partly due to the fact that many women do not take business as seriously as do men. They do not take the same amount of interest in it, but often allow other matters to take precedence.

Since you are in business, and since you do not know how long you will remain in it, why not play the game right? Take the proper businesslike attitude toward your work, strive to do your work better and more efficiently, and have the interests of the business at heart. Do these things—if not for the sake of the business, at least for your own sake, and for your own benefit in the form of a larger salary and a better position. If you will take the proper attitude toward business you will understand why it is necessary that you deport yourself in accordance with the office rules, and even if there are no definite rules laid down, you will appreciate that there are certain broad rules of business conduct that you ought to follow.

Conduct Toward Other Workers

Since there are other workers in the office it is necessary for the good of the office that you follow out certain rules of conduct toward them. The first rule is that of courtesy. As you want your own work at the office to be as agreeable as possible, you must do your share toward keeping up a good spirit in the office. If everyone is courteous and agreeable to everyone else, yours will be a pleasant place to work in. But if there are little cliques and groups, if there are discourtesy and quarrels, if there are criticism and countercriticism, if there are suspicion and jealousies—then your office life will not be very pleasant. Do your share, therefore, to keep these troubles out. Courtesy and agreeableness make up the oil that lessens friction.

Co-operate with your fellow workers, and if you can help them, do so. Team work means better results for

you, for your fellow workers, and for the office.

Do not become familiar with the men workers or allow them to become familiar with you. This does not mean that you are to be cold and distant to them; not at all. You should be pleasant and agreeable, but bear in mind that actions that are perfectly all right outside business hours are not considered all right in a business office. This is a matter for your own discretion and judgment. But it is safer to be considered too strict in these matters than too liberal.

Your Personal Appearance

Little, if any, advice can be given to women stenographers concerning the subject of personal appearance, for women appreciate more than do men the value of such matters as correct dress, neatness, and cleanliness. Yet, a

suggestion or two from the business man's point of view may be found valuable—or at least of interest. These matters are of such a personal and intimate nature that, although he sometimes would like to say something about them, the business man is afraid to. Moreover, even a girl's best friends will seldom, if ever, tell her about her deficiencies in these things for fear of losing her friendship. Hence, a girl must be her own mirror, her own counselor.

First of all the business man silently eritieizes the stenographer who wears an attire more suited for social affairs than for office work. He may like "dressy" clothes, but he believes that the office is not the place to wear them. He much prefers to see the girl appropriately attired for her work—and this means simple, plain, workaday elothing. He knows from experience that the overdressed girl is usually an inefficient worker, for she either thinks more about how she looks than about her work, or is so much dressed up that she can't get down to work, or is so uncomfortable that she can't do good work. He believes that for work she should wear working elothes, not playing clothes. A girl who dresses in a businesslike way appears to be a better worker, and she usually is, for fashionable shoes, high heels, a tight dress—these will not let a girl do good work. She is too uncomfortable.

Then there is the matter of overdoing the use of perfume, powder, and other cosmetics. The business man strenuously, but silently, objects to them. He doesn't like to have his office turned into a beauty parlor. He is there for work, he wants others to be there for work, and he likes to have the office look like a working place.

Cleanliness in respect to one's person and dress need not be discussed, for all know, or should know, its business value. But just one hint: the stenographer's hands and nails are usually under the direct gaze of the dictator.

Chapter III

When You Take Dictation

The Importance of Taking Dictation Right

THE employer or dictator usually has only two occasions on which he has an opportunity to judge the value and ability of the stenographer: first, when she takes his dictation; and, second, when he sees the completed work before him. Disregarding, for the time being, the latter occasion, let us consider the first—taking dictation. This occasion is a very important opportunity for the stenographer, because it is at this time (often the only time) that she comes under the direct, personal attention and notice of the dictator; it is at this time that he receives a favorable or unfavorable impression of his stenographer's ability, personality, and other qualities. And it is from these frequent meetings that there is gradually built up in the dictator's mind the judgment that you are an unusually efficient, or a mediocre, or a poor stenographer. Taking dictation is indeed an opportunity for the stenographer, and she should know how to make the most of it.

Be Prepared

When you are asked to take dictation, drop all work immediately, take your book and pencils, and go to the

dictator's desk. Even though you may be part way through a letter that you are typing, leave it in your machine and prepare to take dictation. Never make the dictator wait. If you do so you will only make things harder for yourself, for being made to wait usually affects the temper of most dictators.

Whenever you are called by a dictator and do not know whether it is for dictation or not, always take your note-

book and pencils with you.

In order not to keep the dictator waiting, be sure to keep two or three well-sharpened pencils in your desk so that you will never be forced to stop to sharpen one. If you use a fountain pen, be sure that it is in good working order and that it is filled.

Keep your dictation book in one place so that you can always find it quickly. On your way to the dictator's desk turn the pages of your book to the proper place, so that when you arrive at the desk you won't have to waste time trying to find it. In fact, it is advisable to have the next blank page indicated by a rubber band around your book or by a turned-down page. Take two pencils with you in order that if the point of one of them should break or become dull, as so often happens, you will still have one to use. This precaution will save you the embarrassment of being forced to keep the dictator waiting while you sharpen another pencil or while you go to your desk to get one. Give some attention to these details, make such matters a habit, and you will earn the good will of your dictator.

When you reach the dictator's desk, pull up a chair for yourself, pull out the slide of the desk, or place your book on the desk, or rest it on your knees, and signify that you are ready.

Your Manner When Taking Dictation

One of the main points to watch is your manner when taking dictation. Remember that you can help the dictator a great deal in his dictation by your attitude. The dictator is trying to concentrate his mind on what he is to say or is saying, and the slightest distraction will cause him annoyance. So, whatever you do, don't fidget while he is reflecting or hesitating over what he is going to say next. Some stenographers, while they are waiting for the dictator to dictate something, unconsciously distract his attention by tapping their pencils on the desk or book, by examining their finger nails, and by similar practices. You can spend this time to good advantage by reading your notes and making sure that you have everything right, by planning your letters, by putting in punctuation and paragraph marks if these are not given to you, and so forth.

And don't look expectantly into his face while he is trying to think. This action either hurries him or makes him nervous, with the result that he is dissatisfied with his dictation.

It is rather difficult to take dictation that is slow, jerky, and labored, but be as patient and sympathetic in your attitude as you can. The dictator will appreciate it more than you know.

When the dictation is lengthy some stenographers become sulky, pretend weariness, or appear anxious to get away. Such an attitude is very trying to the dictator, although he may not say anything about it. Be patient and cheerful throughout the dictation.

Some stenographers become very nervous when they are asked to take dictation. They are afraid of the dictator or afraid that they will make mistakes. It is need-

less to say that they must overcome this feeling, for a girl who is in such a frame of mind cannot take dictation well.

Points on Taking Dictation

In beginning the day's dietation put the date at the top of a new page, so that if you are ealled upon a week or so later to read your notes on a letter that is questioned, you

can quickly find the proper place.

One of the first suggestions concerning the taking of dietation which, if followed by the stenographer, will make her more efficient, is this: Don't interrupt the dietator when he is dietating, unless he is going too fast. The reason for this is that if you interrupt him when he is in the middle of an idea, you will very likely eause him to lose the thread of his thought. If you fail to understand a word or phrase that he gave you, mark that spot in some manner and wait either until the end of the letter or until he has paused, before asking what it was that he said.

The next suggestion is this: Remember that the eorrectness of your finished letter depends upon your accuracy in getting down exactly what the dietator said. Your notes must be 100 per cent perfect, or otherwise your letter may have to be retyped. Save yourself this extra work, and the embarrassment of being compelled to do your work over again, by taking the utmost precautions to be sure that your notes are right.

Many stenographers, when they have failed to catch what the dictator said or when they have not understood an unfamiliar word, are afraid to reveal to the dictator their inattention, carelessness, or lack of understanding, by asking him to repeat or to spell out the word. They "take a chance" that they can later work out the sense or can find the word in the dictionary. But don't you do

it. These things, nine times out of ten, show up very noticeably in the finished letter and are nearly always caught by the dictator before he signs the letter. If you don't know, ask, and have the dictator set you right. Don't add to one fault by making another. So far as the dictator is concerned he would much rather have you ask than be compelled later to have you retype your letter on account of the inaccuracies in it. It saves him time and annoyance.

Bear in mind, then, that your ability to take dictation is judged by your finished letter, and that accuracy is the most important quality of a stenographer. Certainly your letter cannot be accurate if your notes aren't. Accordingly, before you leave the dictator, be sure that you have no doubts about the accuracy of your notes. If you aren't sure, ask. Then, again, remember that you will have to read your notes when you are typing them out. Accordingly, take pains to make your notes legible. Care now will save time and trouble when you are transcribing.

Be particularly careful of names and addresses. If the dictator begins by giving you the name of the person or persons to whom he is writing, or if he uses a name elsewhere in his dictation and does not spell it out for you, make sure that you know how to spell that name. Write it out in longhand. As you know, there are no rules for the spelling of names: Cramer sounds the same as Kramer, Coughlan sounds like Coughlin, and Spalding like Spaudding, but they are spelled differently. You have no way of knowing the correct spelling unless from experience with this dictator you know to whom he refers, or unless you ask. The misspelling of a customer's name is a business blunder. If the dictator is in the habit of turning over to you the letters he has answered, it is only necessary to number the letters in your book or write down a part

of the name; as, Johnson Co., or Ackerson. Always follow exactly the identical form used by the firm addressed on its own letterhead. For examples note the ampersand (&) in Gordon & Jones, the article "The" in The Plimpton Press, the hyphen in The Globe-Wernicke Co., and also the fact that Co. is not spelled out.

The same rule concerning the asking about spelling holds true with respect to the spelling of names of streets, eities, and other places, trade articles, technical words and expressions, etc. It is easier and more efficient to ask than to spend ten or fifteen minutes trying to find out how they are spelled after you have left the dietator. And sometimes you can't find out, especially in the ease of the names of streets. Be especially eareful of figures and amounts. Make certain that you get them correct. A blunder here may be very costly to the firm.

If the dictator does not give you the punctuation to go into the letter, you should put it in while you are taking the dictation.

Carefully Note Instructions

The dietator will often give you instructions about what he wants you to do. He may say, "Put that letter in the follow-up file so that it will come back to me on the 15th"; or, "Make two extra earbon copies of that and give them to me"; or, "Send this letter by special delivery." Whenever he does give you such instructions don't try to earry them in your mind, because you may forget them, and, besides, because there is no need to burden your memory with them. Make a note of them in your book. On other occasions he may hand you an inclosure to go with one of the letters. If he does so, make a note in your book of the inclosure, and also mark the inclosure, so that you will know into which letter it is to go.

In some offices the dictator may have various styles of letterheads that he uses on different occasions. He may have the regular business letterhead for the usual business letters; he may have an official or private letterhead for semi-business, semi-personal matters; and he may have his own personal letterhead for his own personal letters. If you aren't sure which letterhead you should use, ask him.

After he has indicated that he has finished dictating, make sure again that you have no doubts about your notes. Then gather up the letters he has answered, the inclosures, your book and pencils, and go back to your desk. Don't, by carelessness or oversight, leave anything of yours on the dictator's desk.

Chapter IV

Transcribing and Typing

You Are Judged by Your Completed Work

At the beginning of the last chapter the statement was made that the employer or dictator usually has only two occasions on which he has an opportunity to judge the value and ability of the stenographer: first, when she takes his dictation; and, second, when he sees the completed work before him. This second occasion now remains to be discussed.

Even a poor stenographer may make a good impression on the dictator at the time she takes dictation. She may apparently know her business and seem to take dictation well. But, after all, it is the completed work that the dictator sees and judges by; in fact, it is the finished result that counts, that shows the dictator that the stenographer is accurate and otherwise efficient. Thus it may be said that, so far as tangible and apparent results are concerned, the typed letter or other matter is the most certain method of determining the ability of a stenographer, for it shows whether she can take dictation accurately, it shows her knowledge of such matters as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, grammar, and mechanical make-up; and it shows her neatness and ability as a typist. In view of the fact that so much importance is

attached to the finished work it should be apparent to the stenographer that she must concentrate her utmost efforts to insure that her work is as good as she possibly can do.

Accuracy in Transcription

The dictator judges the finished work of the stenographer under two general heads: (1) accuracy and correctness, and (2) appearance. As has been said before, the most important quality of the letter is accuracy. It is better to go more slowly with your typing and get everything correct than to go faster and make mistakes. Hence, accuracy is the keynote of efficient transcribing and typing, as it is also of the efficient taking of dictation. Assuming, therefore, that your notes are accurate and legible, there is no reason except downright carelessness why your letter shouldn't be accurate with respect to sense and meaning.

It sometimes happens, however, that your notes don't make sense, either because the dictator himself made a slip or because you did. In this event either get the necessary information from the dictator, or, if you are sure that you know what he meant to say, put that down. Don't bother the dictator unless you have to. But when you cannot proceed intelligently with your work, have the courage to ask for the necessary information. Whatever you do, don't type sentences that make no sense, even though your notes read that way. This is an important point, and should be carefully noted. It is a good plan to read a sentence or two of your notes at a time to make sure they read all right before you type them.

Misspelling is a common error that causes much trouble, for misspelling means that the letter will have to be retyped or corrections made on the typewriter, or in ink by the dictator. And there is little or no excuse for mis-

spelling. It results either from earelessness in typing or from ignorance. If you aren't sure of how the word is spelled don't "take a chance" on it, but look it up in your dictionary. If your concern does not furnish you with a dictionary, buy one, for it will be worth a good deal more to you than the money you spend on it. And buy a good one—not a ten- or twenty-five-cent one, but a good one, in which you can find the words that give you trouble. The small, cheap dictionaries are so much abridged or so brief that often you will not find in them the words you are looking up. [A complete discussion of spelling is given in Chapter VI, page 71.]

Another error, but one not so common as misspelling, is the use of a word which sounds like the one the dictator used, which has the same or nearly the same outline as another word, but which is the wrong word. Some of these words are advise and advice, bad and bade, born and borne, canvas and canvass, formally and formerly. [A list of these words is given beginning on page 82. You should know them, their different meanings and spellings, so that

you will know which one to use.]

Why You Should Be Up on Your Grammar

It sometimes happens that the dietator in his haste, or on account of concentration on his ideas, or, it must be said, because of his ignorance, makes a grammatical blunder. He may have used a singular subject and followed it with a plural verb, as in the sentence, "Each one of my five recommendations were approved," when he should have said, "Each one of my five recommendations was approved." Or he may have dietated a sentence that is ambiguous on account of the misplacing of a phrase, as, "Please fill out the eredit blank that you will find inclosed

in ink," when he should have said, "Please fill out in ink the credit blank that you will find inclosed." When the stenographer notices such blunders—and she should always be on the watch for them—she should correct them. But she should be sure that there is a blunder and that she knows how to correct it. If she isn't sure she should bring it to the attention of the dictator. If she watches for and corrects mistakes in the grammar of the dictator, she can often save the concern from making a poor impression upon its customer because of the grammatical mistakes in the letter.

A sound knowledge of grammar should be part of the stock in trade of the good stenographer. The stenographer who knows grammar is all the more valuable to a company. If you aren't sure of your grammar, brush up on it. Buy a grammar and review it carefully. Some day you will be glad that you did, for it may bring you the opportunity that you want.

Editing Dictated Material

The stenographer is often troubled about the liberty she can take in editing dictated material. Of course, if the mistake is a bad one, and very obvious, there is no question about it. But at other times the circumstances in the case must govern her actions. In general, it may be said the stenographer's experience with the dictator, and her knowledge of his ability and wishes, will serve as a guide. Some dictators don't want you to change a single word unless you first consult them; others, and they are in the majority, are only too glad to have a stenographer who will take the responsibility to see that the letter is clear, correct in English and grammar, and free from incorrect statements.

Paragraphing the Letter

If the dictator does not give you the paragraphing, it is necessary to use your own judgment about it, for seldom, except in very short letters, should the letter be solidly typed, with no paragraphs. This fact means that you should know how to break a letter into paragraphs. The general rule is that each idea should be given a separate paragraph. Accordingly, when you are transcribing your notes, begin a new paragraph whenever you come upon a new idea or a break in the thought. It might be advisable, also, to read and study the chapters on paragraph structure which you will find in any book on English rhetoric.

Punctuation and Capitalization

The subject of punctuation and capitalization is discussed in detail in Chapter VIII, beginning on page 133. At this point, therefore, it is only necessary to remind you of the importance of attention to these matters when you are transcribing.

Always Read Over Your Work

After you have finished transcribing the letter, read it over very carefully before you take it out of the machine, and try to find any errors that you may have made. It is better to make corrections while the letter is in the machine, for you are then assured of good alignment when you make the correction. Read for sense, but watch the grammar, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. Be especially careful that you have not transposed numbers. It is much better for you to find the error on yourself than

to have the dictator find it. At this time bear in mind the fact that accuracy and correctness are the most valuable qualities of your work. Be sure that your letters are correct before you hand them in to be signed.

If you have been given some copying work to do, always compare your finished work with the original. There is

no excuse for errors in copying.

As you finish each letter put any inclosures that belong with the letter into the addressed envelope so that you won't forget them. It is a dangerous practice to leave this matter until all the letters are done. By that time you may have forgotten about the inclosure.

The Appearance of Your Work

The second quality by which your work is judged is that of appearance. Your work should be clean and neat; it should have good mechanical make-up, and in general should make a good appearance. In these days business concerns are paying more and more attention to the appearance of the letters that go out and represent them to their customers. Hence, the stenographer who can get out good-looking letters is in greater demand than ever before. The appearance of the letter is a very important matter, remember that. Try to make your letters as good-looking as you can. Be proud of your work. Bear in mind that your ability is judged to a great extent by the appearance of your letters and that you are responsible for the appearance of your letters.

Making Erasures and Changes

First of all, the letter should be neat and clean-looking. There should be no unsightly erasures, smudges, or other 4

marks indicating slovenly work. Erasures seem to eause most of the trouble. Of course, it is hardly possible to type all letters perfectly; but try to make as few mistakes as possible. Again, it is better to go a little more slowly and do better work.

Whenever it is necessary to make an erasure make it first in the letter, being sure, however, to place a piece of heavy paper between the earbon paper and the earbon copy, so that your erasing won't smudge up the latter. In making the erasure use an erasure shield, so that you won't erase letters or marks other than those you wish to erase, and make the erasure lightly and neatly, but still do it completely. Brush and blow away any particles of paper or rubber that remain on the letter sheet, so that when you strike over the erased spot the new letters or marks will be neat, and also so that these particles will not get into and clog the typewriter keys. Then make a neat erasure on the carbon copy.

Sometimes you do not detect the error until after you have taken the letter from the machine. In this ease make your erasures before you put the letter back into the machine. Be sure that the earbon copy is in its proper position, and that, when you strike the key to put in a letter or word, the proper alignment is secured. Be careful of these things, for careless work in these matters is very noticeable. The same is true when the dictator has indicated on the letter certain corrections, additions, or changes. Try to make them so that they will not be noticeable. Here is where your skill in operating the type-writer is put to a real test. But when you do make these corrections, changes, or additions, be sure to make them on the earbon copy also, in order that the copy will be a "true" copy.

Never strike one letter over another except in such

cases as striking "h" over "n," and "p" over "o." Otherwise the work doesn't look right. It is better to erase and make a good job of it while you are at it.

Keep Your Machine in Good Condition

Even a good workman can't do good work with poor tools. Nor can you do good work if your machine isn't in good working condition. The responsibility of seeing that it is in good order rests upon you. Of course, if there should be something seriously wrong with it, such as letters out of alignment, you aren't expected to be able to repair it, but you are expected to take steps to have it put in repair as soon as possible. Bring the matter to the attention of the chief stenographer, or, if you are in a small office, ask your employer for permission to have the repairs made.

Keep the type letters clean. The moment you notice that a letter is clogged, stop your work and clean that letter. At least once a week you should give the faces of the type and the whole machine a good cleaning. If you don't know how to clean and oil your machine, read the printed instructions that the manufacturer of your machine will be glad to give you. In oiling the machine be careful that there is no superfluous oil left on the machine, for this oil will make oil spots on your paper and will gather dust. Wipe off the machine carefully with a cloth after you have oiled it.

If your paper slips and doesn't move with the roller or platen, put in another sheet with it. If it still slips, use emery paper to roughen the platen so that it will grip the paper.

A worn-out ribbon is often the cause of poor-looking work. The moment that you notice that the typing looks

faint or "spotty," either "turn" the ribbon or get a new one.

Take good care of your machine and it will do good work for you. This suggestion is given, not because your care of the machine may make it last longer, but because your care will mean that your letters will be better-looking—and that's what you want.

Don't Dispute with the Dictator

Sometimes the dictator may call you back and tell you that you made him appear to say certain things in his letters that he didn't say. Don't bridle under this criticism and retort that that was what he said according to your notes. Your notes may be incorrect. Even if the dictator is in the wrong let him have his way. You gain nothing by disputing his statements. If you gain a reputation with him for being accurate, he will soon realize that you were right in these matters.

Taking Care of Your Notebooks

As you finish transcribing each page, draw a cross through it or indicate in some way that its contents have been typed.

After you have filled your notebook write your name on the cover, and also note on it the dates covered by the contents, as January 5-January 18, 1921; then file it. In case of any questioning of the correctness of a letter you can then easily find the notes of the letter.

Office Supplies

Make sure that you have in your desk adequate office supplies, such as pencils, the various types of letterheads

and envelopes, notebooks, carbon paper, and second sheets. You should have at least a day's supply of such things, so that you will not have to interrupt your work while you are getting enough supplies to go on with.

Chapter V

The Mechanical Make-up of the Letter

Know and Use Good Mechanical Make-up

THE appearance of your letters depends to a large extent upon the mechanical make-up you use. By mechanical make-up is meant such matters as placing the letter properly on the letter sheet so that the margins will be right, the spacing of the letter, the observance of good usage with respect to titles, to forms of the salutation and of the complimentary close, and similar points that often cause worry. The competent stenographer should be well informed on these matters, for such knowledge will help much in getting out good-looking letters, and will insure that the form used conforms with correct usage.

In some offices the stenographer is provided with a standardized form and arrangement of a letter, which she is asked to follow, so that all letters going out of that office will have the same kind of mechanical make-up. This fact does not imply that the way you learned to arrange and type your letters is incorrect; it merely means that the office wants all its letters to be standardized in appearance and form. If you are provided with such instructions and rules, you should, of course, follow them out fully. If you are not so provided you may be in-

terested in the following points that will help make your letters present a good appearance and that will inform you as to what is considered correct usage.

Placing the Letter on the Page

Before you start typing the letter you should first glance over your notes and get a pretty accurate estimate of the amount of material in the letter. This step is necessary if you wish to have the proper margins-and good margins help the appearance of your letter a great deal. Some stenographers always begin their letters the same distance from the top of the sheet and the same distance in from the edge. This practice will mean that the letter consisting of only three or four lines will not look right, for the typed matter will be too near the top. If you find that the letter contains only a small amount of material, begin your letter lower down on the sheet [this means the date, tool, and leave a wider margin at the left. The right-hand margin should be the same as the lefthand one. The margin at the foot of the letter should be the biggest.

Sometimes it is advisable, in very short letters, to double space between the lines of the address and also between

the lines in the body of the letter.

If the letter is longer, begin nearer the top and make your margins smaller. But never crowd the letter so that there is less than one inch between the signature and the bottom edge of the sheet, and never make your side margins less than three-quarters of an inch. It is much better to go to a second sheet. But if you do go to a second sheet, do not have only the complimentary close, like "Yours truly," and the signature on that sheet. There should be at least three or four lines of typing on it;

THE SAVMS PRODUCTS COMPARY

November 16, 1920.

John Wanamaker, 8th Street and Broadway, New York City.

Gentlemen:

Attention of Superintendent of Building

This letter will serve to introduce to you Er. R. A. Holmes of the Manhattan Export Company who wisches to imspect the condition of the wood flooring on the eighth floor of the new bullding, which our company treated several years ago. We shall appreciate your courtesy in this matter.

Very truly yours,
THE SAULS PRODUCTS COLPAIN
By F. Degalem

F. S. Ingraham - C. F.

THE SAVMS PRODUCTS COMPARY

November 16, 1920.

John Wanamaker, 8th Street and Broadway, New York City.

Gentlemen:

Attention of Superintendent of Building

This letter will serve to introduce to you ker. R. A. Rolmes of the Manhattan Export Company who wishes to inspect the condition of the wood flooring on the eighth floor of the new building, which our company treated several years ago. We shall appreciate your sourtesy in this matter

Very truly yours,
THE SAULS PRODUCTS COMPANY
By & Dograham

F. S. Ingraham - C. F.

otherwise the second sheet won't look right. Try to plan out these things in advance. And be especially careful of these points when you are approaching the foot of the letter. You must then decide whether or not you have enough space left to complete the letter on that sheet and still leave a good margin, or whether you will have to go to a second sheet. All this is a matter of judgment and experience on your part.

Of course, it is impossible to make the right-hand edge of your typed letter exactly even, as you can do with the left-hand edge, but you can at least try not to have it look too jagged and irregular. Be particularly careful in typing the end of your first line, for the end of the last word in this line determines the imaginary margin line that you are trying to keep for the right-hand side of the

typed matter.

The Parts of the Mechanical Make-up of a Letter

For the purpose of discussion, the mechanical make-up of the letter may be divided into six parts: the heading, the inside address, the salutation, the body of the letter, the complimentary close, and the signature. In reading what is said about these matters, please remember that this book attempts to give you examples of what is considered correct usage. Other forms are not necessarily incorrect.

The Heading

1. Since you are provided with printed letterheads, the only part of the heading that you will type is the date. This is sometimes placed in the center, or on the date line printed on the sheet. The most common practice, however, is to place it at the right, below the heading. If

you place it at the right, remember before you do so that its position depends upon the length of the letter. [See "Placing the Letter on the Page," page 43.] Remember also that the last figure in the date is often used to determine the imaginary line which you try to keep at the right as the margin line of your typing.

2. The date should consist of the month, the number of the day, and the number of the year. Do not use a num-

ber for the month, and do not abbreviate the year.

Wrong: 4-8-'21 4/8/'21 Right: April 8, 1921

- 3. Although on the face of it the use of the number of the month and of the year seems to be more efficient than the use of the month written out, nevertheless the reader is often confused in trying to find out exactly what month is meant. In many European countries, 4-8-'21 would be read "the 4th of August, 1921," instead of "April 8, 1921."
- 4. In ordinary business letters the numbers in the date should not be written out in full, as May twenty-four, Nineteen hundred twenty-one. In certain cases, however, such as in official letters, the date is spelled out to secure a greater formality.

5. The number of the day does not need to be followed

by d, nd, rd, st, or th.

Incorrect: May 5th, 1921 Correct: May 5, 1921

Note.—This rule holds good when referring, in the body of the letter, to the date. It is permissible, however, to use such forms as "the 10th of May."

The Inside Address

1. The name and address of the person or group to whom the letter is directed is placed at the left-hand side of the page, below the heading. Its distance below the printed heading depends upon the arrangement of the matter in the body of the letter [see page 43]. When "window" envelopes are used, however, it is necessary to type the inside address within a prescribed space. These two forms, the straight edge and the indented, are used:

The Smith Hardware Company, Inc., 35 Broadway,
New York City.

[Or]
The Smith Hardware Company, Inc.,

35 Broadway,
New York City.

- 2. According to custom and courtesy, some title should always be used with the name of the person or persons addressed; but no title is used before names of corporations (United States Rubber Company), nor before partnerships with an impersonal style (Electric Novelty Manufacturing Company). Moreover, it is now good practice to omit the title (Messrs.) before the style of a partnership that contains the names of the individuals (Meyer & Ayres). The commonest titles used in business are as follows: Mr., Messrs., Mrs., Miss, Dr., Rev., Hon., Prof., Esq.
- 3. In addressing a person, always use whatever title the person may possess; for example, Dr., Rev., Lieutenant.
- 4. Sometimes a woman, whose letter is being answered, will have signed her name without the title Mrs. or Miss

before it. In such an instance try to ascertain whether she is married or unmarried, so that you can use the proper title. If you cannot find out, assume that she is unmarried, and use the title *Miss*. Note that the title *Miss* is not now considered an abbreviation and is therefore not to be followed with a period.

5. The title Esq. (Esquire) follows the name of the man addressed. It has practically gone out of general use in the United States, although it is still commonly used by banks and lawyers, and in addressing a man residing in the British Empire. When it is used it should not be used together with Mr.

Wrong: Mr. Howard T. Maxwell, Esq. Right: Howard T. Maxwell, Esq.

[Or, preferably]

Mr. Howard T. Maxwell

6. The title *Messrs*. is an abbreviation of *Messieurs*. It is a common error to write it *Messers*. or *Mess*. This title should not be used in addressing corporations or in addressing partnerships with an impersonal style (name); and it need not be used with other partnership styles.

Wrong: Messrs. American Chain Company, Inc. Right: American Chain Company, Inc.

Wrong: Messrs. The H. K. McCann Company Right: The H. K. McCann Company

Wrong: Messrs. Cluett, Peabody & Co., Inc. Right: Cluett, Peabody & Co., Inc.

Right: Messrs. Meyer & Ayers [a partnership]

Right: Meyer & Ayers

O. S. GARRY, Green' Manager

K. & G. WIRELESS SUPPLY CO.

MANUFACTURERS OF DEPENDABLE APPARATUS .. NEW YORK CITY

150-152 CHAMBERS STREET TELEPHONE, BARCLAY 2362

November 18, 1920.

Montgomery & Smith, 415 North Perry Street, Peoria, Illinois,

Gentlemen:

We thank you for your check for \$49.50 offered us in payment of our invoice of November 1, 1920,

Upon comparing the amount of your check with the amount of our invoice, we find that you have deducted a discount of 1%.
This deduction was probably caused by an overeight on the part of your bookkeeper, for our terme, as you know, are 12 discount for payment within 10 days. As payment was not made until the discount period had elapsed, we are unable to allow the discount of 1%.

The sum involved is ineignificant and we should gladly charge it off to profit and lose were it not our policy to give each of our customers the same fair and square treatment. This treatment cannot be fair and square unless the billing terms are lived up to by everyone. Of course you understand that if we began making exceptions in the matter of discounts, the rule would soon break down entirely.

We know that when this matter is called to your attention you will see the fairness of our position. We are returning your check enclosed and ask that you send us your corrected check for \$50 by return mail to cover this invoice,

Very truly yours, K. & G. WIRELESS SUPPLY CO.

Encl. 0.5.G. - C.F.

O. S. GARRY, General Manager

K. & G. WIRELESS SUPPLY CO. MANUFACTURERS OF

DEPENDABLE APPARATUS

150-152 CHAMBERS STREET NEW YORK CITY

TELEPHONE, SARCLAY 2262

November 18, 1920,

Montgomery & Smith, 415 North Perry Street, Peoria, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

We thank you for your check for \$49.50 offered us in payment of our invoice of November 1, 1920.

Upon comparing the amount of your check with the amount of our invoics, we find that you have deducted a discount of 1%. This deduction was probably caused by an overeight on the part of your bookkesper, for our terms, as you know, are 1% discount for payment within 10 days. As payment was not make until the discount period had elapsed, we are unable to allow the discount of 1%.

The sum involved is ineignificant and we should gladly charge it off to profit and lose were it not our policy to give such of our customers the same fair and square treatment. This treatment cannot be fair and square unless the billing terms are lived up to by everyone. Of course you understand that if we began making exceptions in the matter of discounts, the rule would soon break down entirely.

We know that when this matter is called to your attention you. will see the fairness of our position. We are returning your check enclosed and ask that you send us your corrected check for \$50 by return mail to cover this invoice.

Very truly yours, K. & G. WIRELESS SUPPLY CO.

Encl. 0.S.G. - C.F.

7. Do not use Mr, with the incorporated name of an individual.

Wrong: Mr. James Butler, Inc. [a corporation]

Right: James Butler, Inc.

Wrong: Mr. Thomas A. Edison, Inc. [a corporation]

Right: Thomas A. Edison, Inc.

8. Such business titles as *President*, *Vice-President*, and *Cashier* follow the name of the person addressed. They are usually placed on the same line with the name. It is advisable not to abbreviate such titles.

Mr. George B. Cortelyou, *President*, Consolidated Gas Company, New York City.

Note.—A title that eonsists of more than two words may be written on a separate line between the name of the individual and the name of the group.

Right: Professor James Melvin Lee, Head of the Department of Journalism, New York University, New York City.

9. Initials indicating degrees, societies, or other honors acquired by an individual may follow his name. Care should be taken to see that they are not used when they are suggested by the title of respect preceding his name. Similarly avoid using the initials of a succession of university degrees unless they are in different fields; use only the initials of the highest degree.

Wrong: Dr. Tasker Howard, M.D. Right: Dr. Tasker Howard.

Right: Tasker Howard, M.D.

Wrong: Prof. Lee Galloway, A.B., A.M., Ph.D.

Right: Prof. Lee Galloway, Ph.D.

But,

Right: Dean Joseph French Johnson, D.C.S., LL.D.

10. Do not abbreviate the first name of the person addressed, even though he does it in his signature; in other words, do not abbreviate Joseph to Jos., Robert to Rob't, William to W'm. When the first name is abbreviated in the firm style, the same form should be used in addressing that group, as Robt. H. Ingersoll & Bro. The same rule applies to Brother, Brothers, etc. Any words that are abbreviated in the printed name of the concern addressed may be abbreviated in addressing that concern. In fact, always follow the identical form used by the business house addressed. For examples note the use of the ampersand (&) in Cosden & Company, the article "The" in The H. K. McCann Company, the hyphen in The Pierce-Arrow Motor Car Co. Also note that Co. is not spelled out in The Century Co., and that McMahon & Co. is spelled with Mc and not with Mac. Always make sure that the name of the person or group is correctly spelled.

11. In addressing officials of governments and of churches, care should be taken to use the title of respect which custom has prescribed. Most of these titles should not be used with the last name alone, as *Rev.* Jones, *Reverend* Jones, *Honorable* Smith. The following are among

the more important titles:

 $\label{lem:president} \begin{tabular}{ll} President of the United States-$The President [Name not required.] \\ Cabinet Officers-$Honorable$ \end{tabular}$

Honorable Newton D. Baker, Secretary of War, Washington, D. C.

Senators—Senator or Honorable
Senator Gilbert Hitchcock,
Washington, D. C.
[Or]
Honorable Gilbert Hitchcock,
U. S. Senate,
Washington, D. C.

Congressmen—Honorable Governors of States—His Excellency His Excellency, Alfred H. Smith, Albany, N. Y.

Mayors-His Honor or Honorable

Other Public Officials-Honorable

Clergymen—Reverend or Rev. [Use abbreviation only with full name.]

Dean (ecclesiastical)—Very Reverend

Bishop-Right Reverend

Archbishop-Most Reverend

Cardinal-His Eminence

Pope-His Holiness

Note.—These and similar titles are used comparatively little in business communications; their chief use is in official correspondence. But note that the form of address used when writing on a business matter is not always the same as that used when writing on an official matter. For example, in writing to President Wilson on a business matter, the correct form of address is:

Honorable Woodrow Wilson, White House, Washington, D. C.

Dear Sir:

In writing to him on an official matter, the correct form of address is:

The President, White House, Washington, D. C.

Sir:

12. Honorable and Reverend, when used as parts of titles in the address, are capitalized. Note that they are to be followed by (1) the Christian name, or the initials, or the title Mr. or Dr., and (2) the surname.

Wrong: Reverend Anderson

Right: Reverend George Anderson

[Or]

Reverend G. A. Anderson

[Or]

Reverend Dr. Anderson

Note 1.—When Honorable and Reverend are used as parts of titles in the body of the letter they are capitalized, preceded by the, and followed by (1) the Christian name, or the initials, or the title Mr. or Dr., and (2) the surname.

Wrong: The meeting was addressed by Honorable Penrose.

Right: The meeting was addressed by the Honorable Boies

Note 2.—When *Professor* is used as part of a title in the body of the letter it should not be abbreviated to *Prof.* unless it is followed by (1) the Christian name, or the initials, and (2) the surname.

Wrong: Write to *Prof. Bacon* for his opinion. Right: Write to *Prof. C. F. Bacon* for his opinion. Right: Write to *Professor Bacon* for his opinion.

13. In official letters the inside address is placed in the lower left-hand part of the letter, slightly below the signature, but beginning at the left-hand margin.

14. Neither No. nor # is needed before the street

number.

Wrong: #33 West Main St.; No. 425 Western Ave. Right: 33 West Main St.; 425 Western Ave.

15. To prevent confusion, numeral names of avenues and streets should be spelled out unless preceded by a compass direction. The most common practice is to abbreviate *Avenue* and *Street*.

Examples: 124 Fifth Ave.; not 124 5th Ave. 348 Twelfth St.; not 348 12th St. 98 East 22nd Street

16. It is permissible to omit punctuation marks at the ends of the lines; but if the last word of any line is an abbreviation, like Co. or Ave., the period is retained.

17. Many business houses do not permit the use of the word city alone in the inside address, as shown below, for they feel that such use cheapens the appearance of the letter.

Mr. John Andrews, 415 Seventh Ave., City.

Perhaps a better reason against its use is the fact that the postmasters of most of the large cities are opposed to such use. From experience they have learned that letters so addressed often go astray or are delayed in delivery because they were not mailed *in the city*, but were carried home to a suburban town and mailed there.

The Salutation

- 1. The complimentary address at the beginning of a letter is called the salutation. In business letters it is practically limited to four forms: Dear Sir, Gentlemen, Dear Madam, and Ladies or Mesdames. Dear Madam is used in addressing a woman, whether married or unmarried. More formality is shown by the use of the salutation My dear Sir or My dear Madam. Note that the first letter of the second word is not a capital. In exceptional cases, as in writing to government officials on official matters, the plain and highly formal Sir is used. If the writer is personally acquainted with the addressee or has corresponded with him before, he may use such a salutation as, My dear Mr. Fox or Dear Mr. Fox.
- 2. The salutation should be written directly below the inside address and the same distance from the edge of the paper as the first line of the inside address. It should always occupy a line by itself.

Brooks Brothers, Madison Ave. and 44th St., New York City. Gentlemen:

- 3. Never use the salutations Dear Friend, My dear Friend, and Dear Miss.
 - 4. Do not use the abbreviation Messrs. as a salutation.

Wrong: Rogers Peet Company, New York City.

Messrs.:

Right: Rogers Peet Company, New York City. Gentlemen:

- 5. Dear Sirs is still used by some banking houses and other conservative institutions, but seems to be practically obsolete elsewhere.
- 6. In addressing such firms as John Wanamaker or James Butler, Inc., the correct salutation is Gentlemen, because these firms are corporations. This is the correct form for any firm composed of men.
 - 7. Avoid such abbreviated forms as D'r, Gents, S'r.
- 8. The salutation is followed by a colon or a comma, never by a semicolon. The dash is unnecessary.
- 9. In official letters the salutation is Sir, Sirs, or sometimes Gentlemen.

The Body of the Letter

- 1. If you indent your paragraphs, all of them should be indented an equal distance from the margin, determined by the first letter in the first line of the inside address—say ten spaces, or one inch—regardless of the length of the salutation. It is also wise to double space between paragraphs. Many business houses use no indention, but begin each paragraph flush with the margin. In this case, paragraphs are indicated by double or triple spacing between the paragraphs. In the illustrations on pages 50 and 51 may be seen the correct forms of a typewritten letter.
- 2. Only one side of the paper should be used. When more than one sheet is necessary to contain the message, plain sheets without the letterhead, but of the same size and material as the letterhead, should be used. At the top of these additional sheets is placed the number of the sheet and the initials or the name of the firm or person to whom the letter is sent, as

Ideal Cocoa & Chocolate Company
HIGH GRADE CHOCOLATE SPECIALTIES - DUTCH COCOA-LIQUORS - COATINGS

FARM ADDITS
HIGH GRADE CHOCOLATE SPECIALTIES - DUTCH COCOA-LIQUORS - COATINGS

FARM ADDITS
HITTE PA

November 16, 1920.

Miss R. H. Stencgrapher, 61 Broadway,

New York City Dear Madam:

Please note that each line of the inside address begins flush with the typing margin and that there are single spuces between lines. A comma should end each line with the exception of the last line, next comes a double space between the inside address and the sulutation (Dear Madam), which is followed by a colonify.

After you have typed the sulutation, double space and begin your first paragraph flush with the margin. Double space between paragraphs.

Good looking letters are generally the result of having the typed bony of the letter well placed on the page Glance over your notes, accordingly, before you start to type the letter and judge how long the acter mill be If, for instance, you see that the letter consists of only one short paragraph, begin the inside address lower down on the letter-lead, and start your typing cargin a little further in from the left-hand edge of the letter sizet. Since the right-head cargin should be equal to the left-hand margin, you should cake your typed line a little shorter than usual. A but of forethought on your part will gean good-looking letters — one of the chef wave by which your work is judged,

In closing a letter, begin the complimentary close in the center of the line and end with a compa.

Yours truly, Walter TE. Bylund Sales Hanager

W. R. B - L.

In case there is a postscript to your 1-tter, begin it three speces down from the title of the signer, and flush with the sargin. Do not put the letters "P.S." before it, They are windcessary.

3. If a second page is necessary, care should be taken to see that it contains at least three lines of the body of the letter.

The Complimentary Close

1. The complimentary close is placed two or three spaces below the body of the letter and usually begins midway between the right- and left-hand margins.

2. The following forms are most used in business letters: Yours truly, Truly yours, Very truly yours, Yours very truly,

Yours respectfully.

3. Sometimes in place of *truly* it is permissible to use *Cordially*, or *Sincerely*, though these should usually be reserved for cases where there is an established acquaintanceship between writer and reader.

4. Do not use any abbreviation such as Y'rs or Resp'y in the complimentary close. Do not write respectively for

respectfully.

5. In the complimentary close only the first word should begin with a capital. The proper punctuation at the end is a comma.

6. In official letters the complimentary close is Respect-

fully, Respectfully submitted, or Yours respectfully.

7. The innovation in writing the complimentary close at the left in alignment with the left-hand type margin has little to recommend it, and does not seem likely to receive general adoption. The space there is necessary for other purposes.

The Signature

1. The word "signature" is used to designate everything necessary to fix responsibility for the letter. Sometimes it consists only of the name of the writer; sometimes

it includes also the name of the business house or other group whom he represents and in whose interests he is

writing.

2. If the letter is from the company, the company name should be typewritten, and below it should come the written signature of the person directly responsible for the letter. If he is an official, his signature should be followed by his title, as, *President*, *Secretary*, *Cashier*, and the like. This title should be typewritten. If he is not an official his signature may be preceded by the word by. [It is not necessary to capitalize the letter b.]

3. It is a wise practice to type the name of the dictator two or three spaces down from the signature and flush with the left-hand margin. This insures against misdirection of a reply to the dictator, for it is sometimes very difficult to decipher a signature. Then add your own initials. In other cases, only the initials of the dictator

and stenographer are used.

Examples: G. R. Walters—C. H. G. R. W.—C. H. G. R. W./C. H.

4. The signature of the writer, if a man, should not be

preceded by any title, such as Mr. or Prof.

5. A married woman signs her full name (this includes her maiden name) and places immediately below, in parentheses, the name used in her mailing address.

Anna Templeton Parsons (Mrs. Edward F. Parsons)

6. An unmarried woman signs her name with Miss in parentheses before it. The practice of omitting "(Miss)"

seems to be growing in favor, doubtless on the assumption that it will be taken for granted if the name is feminine. Initials in such cases cause confusion.

Miscellaneous Points

1. Inclosures should be indicated by the abbreviation *Incl.* (or *Encl.*) placed next to the left-hand margin, below the initials of dictator and transcriber; e.g., 3 *incls*.

2. Reference numbers for filing and other purposes may be placed above the body of the letter, just below the date;

e.g., In replying, refer to A 407.

3. The personal attention of a certain individual in a firm is secured to a matter of the firm's business by the expression Attention of Mr. Blank written in the center of the page. This may be placed below the salutation or above the inside address. The former position is preferable. The salutation should agree, however, with the firm addressed; e.g., Gentlemen rather than Dear Sir.

Corn Exchange Bank, Astor Place, New York City.

Gentlemen:

Attention of Mr. Cronin

4. When a postscript is added it is not necessary to place the letters P. S. before it. Drop down two spaces below the signature and begin it at your paragraph margin.

5. In folding the letter, fold up the bottom edge until it is exactly even with the top edge or one-half inch from the top edge, and crease; then fold over from the right a little more than one-third of the letter and crease. The

remainder of the letter is folded over from the left. The free edge of the letter is thus slightly separated from the right-hand crease. It should be placed in the envelope with the free edge toward yourself.

6. If the letter is to be inclosed in a window envelope (one with a transparent oval to obviate the necessity of writing the address twice), it must, of course, be folded so that the inside address will show through the "window" in proper position.

The Envelope

1. For most letters, the ordinary No. 6 envelope is used. But for bulky letters, and when there are many or large inclosurcs, a larger envelope must be used. Have this point in mind when you are choosing the envelope for the letter. The address should begin slightly below the middle of the envelope and should be well centered. Two forms are used, just as in the inside address.

The Smith Hardware Company,
35 Broadway,
New York City.
[Or]
The Smith Hardware Company,
35 Broadway,
New York City.

- 2. When the straight-edge or block form is used in the inside address this form should be used also on the envelope. The main thing to be considered is that the address should be well balanced.
- 3. The order of the address is usually as follows: first line, name of addressee; second line, street address or box number; third line, city or town, and state or country;

or state or country may be placed on a fourth line. Be

especially certain that the address is correct.

4. The personal attention of a certain individual in a firm is secured to a matter of the firm's business by the expression "(Attention of Mr. Blank)" placed in the lower left-hand corner of the envelope.

5. If the letter is to go special delivery, or is to be registered, or is going to a foreign country (in which case extra postage is required), it is a wise practice to write in red ink on the envelope at the place where the stamps will go such directions as "Special Delivery," "Registered," "Foreign." In case a return receipt is needed, type "Return Receipt Requested" at the lower left-hand side of the envelope.

Official Letters

Official letters are used in writing about matters that are outside the scope of regular business. Any letter that is written by or to an official, or to a business man, on any other question than those which come up in the regular routine of business, may be considered an official letter.

The stationery used in these letters is different from that used for other business communications. As a rule, it is of folder form, like social stationery, and may be smaller in size than the 8½x11-in. business sheet. When four-page folder sheets are used the fold should be at the right, or, in other words, that page which is ordinarily the back page of a folder is the first page to be written on. If a second page is necessary, the other outside page is used. When three or four pages are to be written on, the best order is the natural, as 1, 2, 3, 4; and not 1, 2, 4, 3, or 1, 4, 2, 3.

64

K. & G. WIRELESS SUPPLY CO. 152 CHAMBERS STREET NEW YORK CITY

> Montgomery & Smith, 415 North Perry Street, Peoria, Illinois.

ARRANGEMENT OF ADDRESS ON ENVELOPE (BLOCK FORM)

K. & G. WIRELESS SUPPLY CO. 152 CHAMBERS STREET NEW YORK CITY

> Montgomery & Smith, 415 North Perry Street, Peoria, Illinois.

Formal Official Letters

There are two classes of official letters—the formal and the informal. The formal letter is sent to government officials, members of Congress, and others in high position.

The mechanical form of the formal official letter differs from that of other business letters. The inside address is written at the close of the letter at the left-hand side. In it, all titles are given in full. No abbreviations should be used except initials of degrees, societies, etc., as *LL.D.*, *F.R.G.S.*

The salutation is Sir or Sirs. The complimentary close is Respectfully or Very respectfully.

In the body of the letter, the strictest formality is observed. No abbreviations or colloquial expressions are permissible.

Informal Official Letters

Informal official letters are used between business men who are on terms of familiarity with one another, about matters outside the routine of business.

As in the formal official letter, the inside address is at the lower left-hand corner of the sheet at the end of the letter.

The salutation is informal, as Dear Johnston, Dear Mr. Johnston, Dear Fred, or any other appropriate salutation the writer pleases to use. The complimentary close may be Sincerely, Cordially, or Faithfully, and others of like tenor.

The Mechanical Display of Reports

A typewritten report should be made as attractive as possible in mechanical display. Moreover, a report should be made convenient for reference purposes. To accom-

66

39 PARK PLACE NEW YORK

November 16, 1920

My dear Mr. Bronson:

Upon my return from Philadelphie I found your letter of November 15 awaiting me. I certainly shall be pleased to meet you at the Yale Club at the time you suggest, 7:30 P. M. I shall bring with me all the data that I have been able to gather on the subject in question.

Cordially yours, Walter R Bylund_

Mr. T. L. Bronson, 10 Wall Street, New York City.

THE PHYSICAL ARPANGEMENT OF A REPORT PAGE

Different Einds of Poports 0

Reports range all the way from the short report of nearly all figures to long reports made up of narration, description, and exposition. There is every grade of report from the mere presentation of facts or statistics up to dignified persuasion and the making of important recommendations. But in all cases the physical arrangement of the report is very important. The value of the report is largely dependent upon the method of arrangement and physical appearance.

0

Arrangement of the Report In order that the reader may be able to refer immediately to any point in the report in which he is most interested that in order that he may know sacity what is covered in a certain paragraph or section, the report should have numerous sub-heads appearing in the margin opposite the paragraph or pergraphs to which the sub-head refers.

Margins

To allow sufficient space for the sub-heads which appear in the margin and to permit of the placing of the report in a locas-leaf binder so that the written portion of the report will not be obscured, leave a margin of two inches at the left-land side. A margin of three-quarters of an inch should be left at the right-land side. All lines should begin flush with the left type-margin line.

HEADINGS

Main Heads

Main heads should be written in capital letters and should be centered on the page.

Sub-heads

The first letter of all works in a sub-head, with the exception of articles and propositions, should be a capital latter. The sub-head should began in the margam, on a line with and opposite the paragraph to which it refers. Lates at least a quarter inch be teen the end of the sub-head and the paragraph rangin.

SPACING

Sincle space between lines, and double space between partiraghes, thenever there is a main heading, drop down three spaces, type the main heading and then drop from two more spaces before etarting the next paragraph.

purpose a skilled regair machinist should be employed to keep the equiphent in order. Nonover he is to report every three months (Jan. 1, April 1, July 1, and Oct, 1) on the condition of these machines to the head of the department, so that replacements and new equipment may be secured far enough about

Establishment of a department material room The establishment of a departmental material room is essential for the economical care of supplies. A responsible clerk shoult be in charge of such a room with matherity to record, stors, and issue materials in accordance with the written orders given him by the head of the press department. Froper books, forms, and files should be furnished by the accounting department.

Planning of the work should be done through the head of the department Planning of the work for the day should be done by an anaistant to the head of the prese department. No plane should pass without having been completely checked by the head of that department. Written orders to the mechanics should be signed by the head of the department.

EFFECTS OF SUGGESTIONS

Departmental costs reduced through use of standardized squipment With properly standardized equipment, work may be planned on a common basis, and thue may be avoided the present confusing esries of figures used for estimating. This plan will not only save time in making estimates but will safeguard the company from strong in estimates.

Considerable earing will result from the benefit of interchangeable, standardized parts. The present capital investment for rollers, elitting knives, and other supplementary parts amounts to \$744,000. With the standardized squipment proposed under tile new system, the capital investment for such items will not exceed \$3,000 at catalog prices.

The lose in "idls tims", both of labor and of

-7-

plish these two purposes, the following suggestions will help:

- Leave a wider margin than you ordinarily use in letters, at the left-hand side of the sheet, for often these pages are stapled together or bound at the left, and a narrow margin will mean that the reader will have difficulty in reading the words at the beginnings of the lines.
- 2. Type subheads in capitals, in rcd, underline them, or in some other way separate them from the body of the reading matter so that they will be seen at a glance. Sometimes they are placed in the left-hand marginal space. The appearance and efficiency of the report can be materially enhanced by good display of titles, captions, main heads, subheads, etc.
- The page number may appear either at the top or at the bottom of the sheet.
- Leave good margins at the top and bottom; in other words, don't crowd the page.

Chapter VI

About Your Spelling

The Importance of Correct Spelling

The ability of the stenographer to spell correctly all the words in her letters is important, not only to the stenographer, but to the dictator and to the business concern as well. It is important to the dictator because he is made to appear in a disadvantageous light to the reader of the letter if the letter contains misspelled words. He is made to appear either ignorant or careless. Moreover, if he is not sure of the ability of his stenographer to make certain that there are no faults in spelling in his letters, he is obliged to read every word carefully to assure himself that it is correctly spelled. If he is compelled to do this before he is willing to attach his signature to the letter, it means a loss of time and much worry. You can readily realize, therefore, why the dictator thinks highly of the stenographer who is consistently dependable in her spelling.

Correct spelling is an important matter to the business concern, for it, too, cannot afford to have its name attached to letters that contain misspelled words. Such letters injure its standing in the eyes of its readers. How would you yourself feel if you received a letter from a high-class firm and then found several mistakes in spelling in the letter? Wouldn't you look down on that firm? And, again, the business house loses money whenever one of

its highly paid dictators is forced to spend time checking the spelling of his letters.

For these reasons, therefore, you can see why your ability to spell correctly all the time is important to them, and because it is an important matter to them it is important to you. It makes you more valuable to your dictator and to the house. You have possibly never looked at this seemingly unimportant matter from this viewpoint; but now that you understand the business reasons for good spelling you can appreciate that correct spelling means a lot to business houses.

Consistently dependable spelling is, and always will be, an asset to the stenographer. It should be part of her stock in trade, a tool that she needs constantly in her work. Probably in no other trade or occupation is the ability to spell well more important. Resolve now, therefore, to develop your ability in this matter, and resolve never to misspell another word if you can help it. If you really want to, you can so develop your ability that you will be very close indeed to 100 per cent proficient in it. And since it is so valuable to you, you should want to.

Spelling, after all, is not a difficult subject to master. It is chiefly a matter of carefulness and close concentration. It is not as though you were taking part in a "spelling bee" and could not look up a word about which you were not sure, for you can always assure yourself of the correct spelling by consulting your dictionary. Surely that is easy. And if you don't look up the word it is downright laziness or neglect of your duty. It is just carelessness in matters like this that brands a stenographer as being lazy, negligent, and incompetent.

Some stenographers think it is a disgrace to be seen using a dictionary. Quite the contrary; it shows that a girl is careful and is trying to do accurate work. The

girls who have the best record for correct spelling are not those who neglect the use of the dictionary. Remember that there is absolutely no excuse for even one misspelled word in the letter, for you always have the opportunity to use the dictionary. So make it a rule and a habit with yourself to look up every word concerning the spelling of which you have any doubts. If you do this you will find in time that you will have to use the dictionary only rarely.

There is no need to give space in this book to the rules of spelling. You will find them given in complete detail in any good dictionary. It might be advisable to study them, for if you can remember them you need not spend

so much time looking up words.

Technical and Trade Words

Every trade, business, and profession uses words and expressions that are peculiar to it. The dictator in the printing business uses such words as em, pica, Caslon, and saddle stitching; in the banking business, such words as amortize, debenture, bearish, and when, as, and if issued; and in the legal profession, such words as garnishee, pracipe, quash, and "on all fours." Some of these words and expressions cannot be found in the dictionary. For this reason it is necessary for you to make yourself acquainted, by study and observance, with the spelling of the technical or trade words common to your business, because you will constantly use them. It might not be inadvisable to make a list of them for your own convenience.

Words Correctly Spelled in Two or More Ways

You will frequently come upon words that are correctly spelled in two or more ways. The only rule to observe

here is to be consistent. Don't spell the word in one way in one part of your letter and in a different way in another part. A list of some of these words follows:

B

PREFERRED SPELLING

acknowledgment
agriculturist
almanac
amortize
appall
appareled
appraise
aught
ax \
axe \

A acknowledgement agriculturalist almanack amortise appal apparelled apprize ought

balk barreled behavior beveled biased brier burned (v) baulk
barrelled
behaviour
bevelled
biassed
briar
burnt

caliber
canceled
catalog
center
check
chock-full {
color
cozy
criticize {
criticise {

calibre cancelled catalogue centre cheque

colour cosy, cosey

	D	
decrepit		decrepid
defense		defence
demeanor		demeanour
dependence		dependance
dependent		dependant
develop,-ment		develope,-ment
dexterous		dextrous
disk)		
disc }		
dispatch		despatch
distill \		
distil j		
distributer		distributor
dryly		drily
dye (color)		die
•	•	
	\mathbf{E}	
ecstasy		ecstacy
embarkation		embarcation
enclose \		
inclose 5		
encumber		incumber
endear		indear
endeavor		endeavour
endure		indure
enroll		enrol
envelop (v)		envelope (v)
envelope (n)		envelop (n)
	\mathbf{F}	
favor		favour
formulas \		
formulæ ∫		
•		
	G	
gauge		gage
gayly		gaily
gray		grey
guaranty (n)		
guarantee (n)		
guarantee (v)		guaranty (v)
	75	

H harbor harbour hindrance \ hinderance honor honour humor humour I imperiled imperilled incase encase incumbrance encumbrance indexes) indices (endorse indorse inquire enquire install) instal S installment 1 instalment } intrust entrust inveigle enveigle \mathbf{L} labeled labelled labor labour levelled leveled libeled libelled license licence M mantlepiece mantelpiece marshaled marshalled marvelled marveled memoranda memorandums / milage mileage mold) mould f moneyed monied moneys monies movable moveable

76

	N	
naught	74	nought
		nought
neighbor		neighbour
	0	
,	U	,
odor		odour
offense		offence
	P	
paneled		panelled
paralyze		paralyse
peddler		pedler
penciled		pencilled
plow)		•
plough 5		
practice \		
practise \(\)		
pretense \		
pretence \(\)		
program		
programme \(\)		
	Q	
	4	
quartet)		
quartette 5		
	R	
**************************************	n	
rancor		rancour
re-enforce		reinforce
rigor		rigour
rivaled		rivalled
	S	
salable	D	saleable
shyly		shily
skillful		skilful
suite (n)		suit
survivor		surviver

T theater 1 theatre (transship tranship traveled travelled H unbiased unbiassed until untill W wintry winterv woolen woollen

Foreign Words and Phrases Commonly Used in English

There are certain foreign words and phrases commonly used in dictation, the spelling of which will trouble you. Look them up in the main section of the dictionary; if you don't find them there consult the section on foreign expressions. A short list of the most commonly used foreign words follows:

anno Domini A a posteriori apropos a priori au fait ad infinitum au revoir ad interim ad valorem addendum (plural, addenda) bagatelle bête noire alias blasé alibi alma mater bona fide alumnus (m.) bon voyage alumni alumna (f.) alumnæ camaraderie carte blanche amanuensis animus caveat emptor 78

et cetera chaperon chargé d'affaires ex cathedra ex officio confrère connoisseur ex parte exposé contra contretemps extempore coup d'état F crises (plural of crisis) criteria (plural of criterion) facsimile faux pas cuisine fête D fiasco datum (plural, data) finale de facto finesse débris finis formulæ) début (plurals of formula) formulas (dénouement fracas depot desideratum (plural, desiderata) G devoir dictum (plural, dicta) genre dilletante gratis distingué H distrait. dramatis personæ habitat habitué E hauteur éclat hoi polloi élite honorarium emeritus hors de combat encore T en masse en rapport ignis fatuus impedimenta en route ennui impromptu ensemble in toto entre nous in transitu entrée incognito indices \ entrepreneur (plurals of index) erratum (plural, errata) indexes [esprit de corps ingénue

per capita innuendo,-oes · per cent (or, per cent.) insouciance per centum instanter per contra interim per diem ipso facto per se T. persona non grata laissez-faire personnel phenomena (plural of phenomenon) M post mortem magnus opus post prandial mal de mer prima facie manifesto pro forma manœuvre pro rata masseur (m.) pro tempore masseuse (f.) maximum (plural, maxima) protégé mêlée Q memoranda \ (plurals of memquasi memorandums f orandum) questionnaire minima (plurals of minimum) quondam minimums (quota modus operandi N régime naïve rendezvous naïveté résumé negligée rôle nom de plume nonchalance nota bene (N.B.) sanctum sanctorum sang-froid 0 savant savoire faire onus outré séance sine die P sine qua non par excellence sobriquet passim sotto voce penchant stct sub rosa per annum

80

T V
terra firma verbatim (et literatim)
totum via
tout cnsemble vice
Vice versa
Vis-à-vis
ultimatum viva voce

Plurals of Foreign Words

Many words adopted from foreign languages retain their original plurals. Some of the most commonly used are given below. Many of them, while retaining the original plural form, have also a second, or English, plural form.

Singular	Original Plural	English Plural
addendum	addenda	
alumna (f.)	alumnæ	
alumnus (m.)	alumni	
analysis	analyses	
antithesis	antitheses	
apex	apices	apexes
appendix	appendices	appendixes
axis	axes	
basis	bases	
cherub	cherubim	cherubs
crisis	crises	
criterion	criteria	criterions
curriculum	curricula	curriculums
datum	data	
desideratum	desiderata	
dictum	dicta	
encomium	encomia	encomiums
erratum	errata	
focus	foci	focuses
formula	formulæ	formulas
hypothesis	hypotheses	
index	indices	indexes
	81 *	

Singular	Original Plural	English Plural
matrix	matrices	
maximum	maxima	
memorandum	memoranda	memorandums
minimum	minima	
nucleus	nuclei	nucleuses
oasis	oases	
parenthesis	parentheses	
phenomenon	phenomena	
radius	radii	
stratum	strata	stratums
synopsis	synopses	
tableau	tableaux	
terminus	termini	
ultimatum	ultimata	ultimatums

Words That Have the Same or Nearly the Same Sound

In the English language there is many a word that has the same or nearly the same sound as another word that is spelled differently and has a different meaning. Since, in stenography, the phonetic outlines of these words are often the same, or nearly the same [clothes, cloths], you must be especially careful that you use the right word when you transcribe. To do this you should know what these words are and what different meanings they have, so that you won't make a mistake. A list of the most common ones is given below. Several words are included, however, which differ in spelling in spite of a logical relationship [maintain, maintenance].

accept (to receive) except (to exclude; with the excep- tion of)	affect (to influence) effect (to bring about)		
advice (noun)	allusion (a reference) illusion (a deceiving appear-		
advise (verb)	ance)		

all right base almost hass all ready (completely prepared) already (previously) bean altogether been all ways hin always (at all times) born (brought into being) borne (carried) aloud allowed boy buoy alley (a narrow passage) ally (a confederate) breath (noun) breathe (verb) altar (a structure used in worship) alter (to change) bv buv angel (a celestial being) angle (the meeting-place of two lines) calender (a machine) calendar (a register of the days, etc.) appraise (to set a value on) apprise (to inform) capital (the sum invested in a business; the chief city, etc.) ascent capitol (a statehouse) assent canvas (a cloth) canvass (to solicit) assistants (those who aid) assistance (aid) cease seize bad bade (past tense of to bid) cede (to give up) seed bail (the security for the release of a prisoner) ceiling bale (a large bundle) sealing bare cellar bear seller baring (making bare) barring (obstruction) cereal (edible grain) bearing (carrying) serial (pertaining to a series)

cession (a yielding up)
session (the actual sitting of a court
or other body; the time during
which the body meets)

choir quire

clause

close clothes (garments) cloths (pieces of cloth)

coarse (not fine)
course (route, method of behavior)

complement (to supply a deficiency) compliment (to praise)

conscious (aware)
conscience (an inner moral sense)

corespondent (a joint respondent in a divorce suit) correspondents (those who write communications)

correspondence (communication by letters)

current (a dried berry)
current (a flow)

dairy diary

decent (respectable, etc.)
descent (downward slope or motion)
dissent (a disagreement)

desert (a barren country) dessert (food)

device (noun) devise (verb)

disappear disappoint disavowal dissatisfaction dissimilar dissipate dissuade

discomfit (to thwart)
discomfort (to make uneasy)

done (past participle of to do) dun (an urgent request for payment; as verb, to ask a debtor for payment)

dual (expressing the number 2) duel (a combat between two persons)

emerge (to come forth from concealment) immerge (to plunge into anything)

faint feint (a pretense; a mock attack)

fair fare (the sum paid for a journey, etc.)

flea (an insect)
flee (to run away from)

formally (in a formal way) formerly (in time past)

forth isle (an island) aisle (a narrow passage) forty four its (possessive pronoun) fourth it's (contraction of it is) foul fowl key quay (a wharf) gambling (wagering money on games of chance) know gamboling (frisking or leaping with no joy) later (comparative of late) latter (the second) gate gait (a manner of walking) lead (a metal) led (past tense of to lead) great grate leased (let by written contract) hear least here lessen (verb) heard lesson (noun) herd lesser (smaller; inferior) hinder lessor (one who gives a lease) hindrance loan holly (a tree) lone holy (hallowed, sacred) wholly (altogether) loose (free, not bound) lose (to suffer the loss of) hoping (from hope) hopping (from hop) main mane ingenious (possessed of or proceeding from genius) maintain ingenuous (frank, open) maintenance instance (an example) medal instants (periods of time) meddle

85

7

peace (a state of calm) meat piece (a fragment) meet mete peer (an equal; to look narrowly) miner pier minor perceive perform need persevere knead persuade purchase nineteenth pursue ninetieth ninetv perquisite ninth prerequisite not personal (private, individual) knot personnel (the body of persons engaged in some activity) ore oar **Philippines** Filipino ought (should) aught (anything) plain (clear) naught (a cipher, nothing) plain (flat region) plane (geometrical term) pail pale planed (past tense of to plane) planned (past tense of to plan) pain pane pleasant please pair pare pored (looked with close attention) pear poured past (adjective, adverb, preposiprecede tion) proceed passed (verb, past tense of to pass) succeed

patience

patients

exceed concede

intercede

recede respectfully (with respect) respectively (in a way proper to supersede each; should never be used to precedence (act or right of precedclose a letter) precedents (things said or done berest fore, now used as authority or wrest (to force from by violence) model) right rite (ceremony) presence (state of being present) presents (gifts) write prevail ring prevalent wring (to twist) root (a part of a plant) pride route (a way traveled) pried (inspected closely; raised with a lever) sail sale principal (chief, leading; the leading official of a school; a sum of money) scene (part of a play) principle (a general truth) seen (past participle of to see) profit shone (past tense of shine) prophet shown (past tense of show) prophecy (noun) seize prophesy (verb) siege quiet (still) serge (twilled woolen stuff) quite (completely) surge (a large wave) rain sight (view, spectacle) reign (rule of a monarch) site (situation, a plot of ground rerein (part of a harness) served for some use) cite (to bring forward as evidence) rap wrap (to roll together; a wrapper) sole soul recent (of .late occurrence) resent (to consider as an affront) speak re-sent (sent again) speech

stairs (a series of steps) stares (fixed looks)

stationary (not moving) stationery (writing materials)

statue (a sculptured likeness) stature (height, figure) statute (a law)

steal (to take by theft)
steel (a variety of iron)

suite sweet

tear tier

than then

their (belonging to them) there (in that place) they're (contraction of they are)

therefor (to that end, for that thing) therefore (for that reason)

threw through

till until

to too two

track (an imprint; on a road) tract (an area of land) tract (a treatise) village villain

wade weighed

waist (the middle of the body; a garment)
waste (a loss, a useless expense)

waive (to forego)
wave (to move one way and the
other)

way weigh

weak (not strong) week (seven days)

wear ware

weather whether

whole (entire) hole (an opening)

who's (who is)
whose (the possessive of who)

wood would

wrote (past tense of to write)
rote (a repetition of words or
sounds)

your (the possessive of you) you're (contraction of you are)

Words Commonly Misspelled

Here is a list of words that are commonly misspelled. Study the list with care, for these are the words that give trouble.

A	apparel	business	conscience
Λ	appearance	busy	conscientious
absurd	appropriate	C	considered
accept	arctic		continuous
accidentally	argument	calendar	control
accommodate	arising	candidate	controlled
accumulate	arithmetic	can't	convenience
accustom	arrange	cemetery	convenient
acquainted	arrival	certain	co-operate
acquitted	ascend	changeable	corroborate
across	asks	changing	country
addressed	athletic	characteristic	course
adviser	audience	chauffeur	courteous
affects	auxiliary	choose	courtesy
aggravate	awkward	chose	criticize \
alley		chosen	criticise ∫
allotted	В	chute	cruelty
all right	balance	clothes	cylinder
ally	barbarous	coarse	
already	baring	column	D
altar	barring	combating	dealt
alter	based	coming	debater
altogether	bearing	commission	deceitful
alumnus	becoming	committee	decide
always	begging	comparative	decision
amateur	beginning	compel	deferred
among	believing	compelled	definite
analogous	benefited	competent	derived
analysis	biscuit	concede	descend
angel	boundaries	conceivable	describe
angle	brilliant	confectionery	description
annual	Britain	conferred	despair
anxiety	buoyant	conquer	desperate
apparatus	bureau	conqueror	destroy

device devise difference digging dilemma dining room disappear disappoint disavowal discipline disease dissatisfied dissipate distinction distribute distributor divide divine doctor don't drudgery

E ecstasy effects eighth climinate embarrass eminent encouraging enemy equipped especially etc. everybody exaggerate exceed excellent except

exceptional

dving

exhaust exhilarate existence exorbitant expense experience explanation

F

familiar

fascinate feasible February fierv fifth finally financier forfeit formally formerly forth forty four fourth frantically fraternity friend fulfil furniture

G
gambling
gauge
generally
government
governor
grammar
grandeur
grievous
guarantee
guaranty

guard guess guidance

H
harass
haul
having
height
hesitancy
holy
hoping
huge
humorous
hundredths

hurriedly

hygienic

I imaginary imitative immediately immigration imminent impromptu incidentally incidents incredulous independence indiscreet indispensable induce influence infinite instance instant intellectual intelligence intentionally intercede

irrelevant irresistible its it's itself

judgment K knowledge L

J

laboratory ladies laid later latter lead led liable library license lightning likely literature loose lose losing lving

M
maintain
maintenance
manual
manufacturer
many
marriage
Massachusetts
material
mathematics

invitation

mattress
meant
messenger
miniature
minutes
miscellaneous
mischievous
Mississippi
misspelled
momentous
month
murmur
muscle

N

mysterious

necessary
negroes
neither
nickel
nineteenth
ninetieth
ninety
ninth
noticeable
nowadays

0

oblige
obstacle
occasion
occasionally
occur
occurred
occurrence
occurring
o'clock
officers
omitted
omission

opinion
opportunity
optimistic
original
outrageous
overrun

P

pantomime

parliament

particularly

paid

parallel

partner passenger pastime peaceable perceive perception peremptory perform perhaps permissible perquisite perseverance personal personnel perspiration persuade pertain pervade physical picnic picknicking planned pleasant politician politics possession possible

possibly practically prairie precede precedence precedents preference preferred prejudice preparation prerequisite primitive principal principle prisoner privilege probably

prodigy profession professor proffered prohibition promissory prosecute prove psychology purchase pursuant pursue putting

procedure

proceeding

proceed

quantity quiet 'quite

rapid

R

rarity ready really recede receipt receive recognize recommend reference referred regard region religion religious repetition replies representative restaurant. rheumatism ridiculous

S

sacrilegious safety sandwich schedule science scream screech secede seems seize sense sentence separate sergeant several shiftless shining shone shown

shriek	supersede	treasurer	warehouse
siege	sure	tries	weak
similar	surprise	triple	wear
simulate	suspicion	trouble	weather
since	syllable	truly	Wednesday
smooth	symmetrical	Tuesday	week
soliloquy	m	two	weird
speak	T	typical	welcome
specimen	temperament	tyranny	welfare ·
speech	temperature		where
statement	tendency	U	wherever
stationary	than	U	whether
stationery	their	universally	which
statue	there	until	whole
stature	therefor	using	wholly
statute	therefore	usually	who's
steal	they're	asaany	whose
steel	thorough	**	wintry
stops	thousandths	V	wiry
stopped	till		within
stopping	to	vacancy	without
stories	together	vegetable	women
straight	too	vengeance	world
stratagem	track	vigilance	writing
stretch	tract	village	written
strictly	tragedy	villain	
succeeds	tranquillity		
successful	transference	W	Y
succession	transferred		
summarize	translate	wafer	your
superintendent	treacherous	waive	you're

Words Ending in "-able" or "-ible"

Since no useful rules can be laid down for the correct spelling of words ending in -able or -ible, the best thing to do is to observe carefully how they are spelled in the following list:

-able

agreeable manageable
amenable passable
bearable peaccable
breakable perishable
changeable preferable
chargeable regrettable

chargeable regrettable (or regretable)
comfortable salable (or saleable)

commendable suitable debatable (or debateable) tenable eatable (but edible) tolerable excusable traceable forgetable (or forgettable) unbearable forgivable unmistakable

indispensable unnamable (or unnameable)

insufferable unspeakable likable valuable lovable wearable

-ible

admissible intelligible audible invincible comprehensible irresistible contemptible legible convertible perceptible credible permissible edible (but eatable) plausible eligible possible flexible responsible forcible sensible incorrigible susceptible indefensible tangible inexpressible terrible infallible visible

Note.—Observe that final e is regularly dropped before the suffix beginning with a vowel, unless it is retained to preserve the soft sound of c or g before a, as in peaceable, changeable; it is not necessary to retain or insert e for this reason before i: intelligible.

Spelling of Possessives

The spelling of possessives sometimes eauses trouble. Here are a few rules on this point:

1. The possessive of singular nouns is formed by the addition of an apostrophe and s ('s).

The company's policy. The secretary's report.

Note 1.—Even though a noun ends in s, its possessive singular is formed in the usual way by the addition of an apostrophe and s ('s), unless the repetition of the s sound makes the word difficult to pronounce or unpleasant in sound. Hence we write "Lewis's salary," "Jones's account"; but "for goodness' sake," "Ulysses' sales territory."

Note 2.—It will be well to notice the following: Somebody else's (not somebody's else), everybody else's (not everybody's else), no one else's (not no one's else).

2. The possessive of plural nouns that end in s is formed by the addition of an apostrophe (') alone.

Youths' suits.
Ladies' umbrellas.
Boys' blouses.

3. The possessive of plural nouns that do not end in s is formed by the addition of an apostrophe and s ('s).

Men's shoes. Children's clothing. Women's cloaks.

4. The possessive of a compound noun or noun phrase is formed by the addition of an apostrophe and s ('s) to the last word only.

The secretary-treasurer's signature. The Palace Theater's new show.

Note 1.—When two or more nouns are so used that *joint* possession is indicated, the sign of the possessive ('s) is added to the last only.

Lord & Taylor's windows.

John and George's new houses. (This expression indicates that John and George are joint owners of the new houses.)

Note 2.—But if separate possession is indicated the sign of the possessive follows each name.

John's and George's new houses. (This expression indicates that both John and George separately own new houses.)

Wanamaker's and Gimbel's new advertising campaigns.

5. The possessive pronouns ours, yours, theirs, hers, its should not be written with an apostrophc. But one, used as a pronoun, forms its possessive case in the regular way, as, one's. Do not confuse the pronoun its with the contraction it's (it is).

Forming the Plural of Figures, Letters, Signs, Etc.

The plural of a figure, letter, or any other character or sign, or of a word mentioned without regard to its meaning, may be indicated by the addition of the apostrophe and s ('s).

Examples:

All the 3's on the page were blurred.... His i's are indistinguishable from his e's.... The report received the O.K.'s of the officers.... Two and's were omitted.

Note.—In such expressions as the following the number has a specific meaning, and is always spelled out:

The eights rowed side by side to the finish line. . . . The strikers walked in front of the entrance in twos and threes. . . . The men were formed in ranks of fours.

The plural of a figure that is spelled out is formed by the addition of s or es to the singular form.

Example:

6

He was very careless in the way he wrote his twos and sixes.

When and When Not to Spell Out Numbers, Amounts, and Sums

It is often very puzzling to know how to type a number i.e., whether to spell it out or to use digits. Although no hard-and-fast rules can be laid down—since many business houses have personal preferences in these matters—the following suggestions may be of help.

1. Always spell out a number if it begins a sentence. If the number is a large one, rearrange the sentence.

Wrong: 2,418 of these parts were shipped to you on August 15.

Right: Two thousand four hundred and eighteen of these parts were shipped to you on August 15.

Rearranged: We shipped to you 2,418 of these parts on August 15.

2. If two groups of figures come together, spell out one or the other of the group, or rearrange the sentence to prevent confusion.

Wrong: In 1920, 4,624 employees received bonuses for good

attendance.

Rearranged: In 1920, bonuses for good attendance were given to

4,624 employees.

3. Use figures in statistical tables, measurements, serial numbers of bonds, policies, etc.

Examples:

The land measures 20 by 110 [or, 20x110] ft. We have no more 2-lb. containers in stock. The chart appears on page 18 of the report. We need four 16-candlepower lamps.

- 4. A number that is preceded by the abbreviation No. should always be expressed in figures, as "Your order No. 2468..." "File No. 146."
- 5. Numbers used in the usual dictated matter, unless specifically governed by other rules, should be written out if they can be expressed in one or two words; if they require three or more words, they should be expressed in figures.

Examples:

There were seventeen desks in the office.

More than a hundred customers canceled their orders.

The letter was sent to 2,183 agents.

The reservoir covered 1,410,000 acres.

We shipped four cases containing 8,248 parts each.

Note.—In applying this rule you should exercise your judgment and experience. Build up your experience by observation of the usage in newspapers and magazines.

6. In a series of numbers maintain a consistent treatment throughout.

Examples:

We have five typists in the foreign exchange department, ten in the credit department, and twenty-two in the main stenographic department.

The packages contained, respectively, 10, 50, and 200 sheets. [Note that a space must be left between the comma and the following number.]

- 7. In ordinary dictation sums of money under one dollar may be spelled out, as in "The tickets cost me seventy-five cents apiece." The more common practice seems to be to express them in figures and with the character \emptyset or c., as in "Please send 34c. in stamps for postage." But do not use this form, \$.03, except in tabulations.
- 8. Round sums of money over a dollar may be written out if they can be represented in a few words; otherwise they may be given in figures. The latter way is the more generally used. [See "Note" under 5.]

Examples:

The bill came to twenty-two dollars. Thank you for your check for \$18.

Note 1.—It is not good practice to use this form:

\$18.00 or \$2,500.00.

Note 2.—Except in very formal commercial letters or in legal documents in which it is important that numbers and sums of money be spelled out to prevent misunderstanding, it is not necessary to follow a spelled-out sum with the sum expressed in figures within parentheses, as in "Five hundred dollars (\$500) shall be paid. . . ." And it is not necessary to capitalize the first letter of cach word of the sum.

- 9. Mixed amounts are usually written in figures, as in "His balance at the bank is \$2,416.84."
 - 10. The time of day is expressed as follows:
 - a. The bell will ring at five minutes of five. [Not, The bell will ring at 5 minutes of 5.]
 - b. The bell will ring at 4.55 p.m.
 - 11. Ages should be written out in words.

Example:

He is forty-two years old.

12. A fraction, when used alone, should be spelled out, except in tabulations, specifications, and the like.

Example:

Only one-fourth of the shift turned up for work. [Not, Only $\frac{1}{4}$ of the shift turned up for work.]

Note.—If your machine has no fraction keys, as ½, ½, be sure to leave a space between a whole number and the fraction; or, a hyphen may be used.

Examples:

4 1/2%, 4-1/2%.

13. Use figures for numbers designating numbered pages, rooms, etc.

Examples:

Pages 4 and 5 are missing. Send these to the McAlpin Hotel, Room 425. Folder 254 is out.

14. Except in formal letters, it is not advisable to spell out the number of the day or of the year.

Example:

The invoice was sent on July 15, 1920. [Not July fifteen.]

- 15. Numbers used with such characters as %, @, #, \emptyset , and with such abbreviations as ft., in., lbs., bbls., and bus. should be expressed in figures as follows: 5% (not five %), 4 ft., 8 lbs. (or, eight pounds).
- 16. In writing decimals supply a cipher if there is no unit, as 0.251.
- 17. Be consistent. Do not, in one part of your letter, write out the amount or number and in another part use figures, unless, of course, the eases are not similar.

Dividing Words at the Ends of the Lines

In order that the right-hand margin of the letter or other typed matter might be as regular as possible, the stenographer is constantly compelled to divide words at the ends of the lines. For this reason, and because of the fact that the incorrect division of words makes reading difficult for the reader, she should be careful of the way in which she divides such words. The following suggestions, accordingly, may be helpful:

- 1. In dividing a word at the end of a line, indicate the connection of the parts by placing a hyphen at the end of that line. Never place it at the beginning of the next line.
 - 2. Avoid unnecessary division of words. Whenever

consistent with good spacing, type the whole word on that line or carry it over to the next line. If possible, do not divide words at the ends of two or more consecutive lines.

- 3. Unless absolutely necessary, do not divide amounts or numbers expressed in figures, as \$5,214.17; and 14,156 [sq. miles]; nor names of persons or places, as Johnson and Watertown; nor the initials of a name, as W. S. [Smith]; nor such combinations as a.m., p.m., c. o. d.; nor dates, as September 15.
- 4. Divide a word between syllables. Correct pronunciation is the best guide to follow in dividing words; it is better than dividing according to derivation.

Examples:

democ-racy, not demo-cracy; knowl-edge, not know-ledge.

- 5. So far as is compatible with proper pronunciation and good spacing, divide according to meaning: displeasure is better than displeas-ure; school-master is better than schoolmas-ter; mani-fold is better than man-ifold.
- 6. Words of four letters, but of more than one syllable, only and city, for examples, should not be divided; words of five or six letters, but of more than one syllable, oc-cur, of-fice, and rare-ly, for examples, should seldom be divided. Little is to be gained by dividing such words.
- 7. Do not divide such words as nothing, also, besides, over, and through; nor such words as many, reason, and smoky. A division of such words is likely to confuse the reader.

101

8. Do not divide words pronounced as one syllable, even though they contain more than one vowel.

Examples:

sure, worked, fringe, marked.

Never divide before -ed unless it is pronounced as a separate syllable. Right: un-skilled, not unskill-ed.

- 9. When two or more consonants come between vowels, the division is made according to the following rules—correct pronunciation governing, of course, in all eases:
 - a. When the syllable ends with a consonant, divide between consonants.

Examples:

advan-tage, finan-cier, foun-dation, destruc-tive, let-ter.

b. When the consonants belong to the preceding or to the follow-lowing syllable, divide accordingly.

Examples:

sell-ing (not sel-ling), miss-ing (not mis-sing), grasp-ing, firm-ness, second-ly, de-spair, sti-fling, pam-phlet.

10. Words which according to pronunciation may be divided before or after a vowel should be divided after the yowel.

Examples:

criti-cize is preferable to crit-icize, medi-tative to medi-itative, fraudulent to fraud-ulent. But note that words ending in able and ible are exceptions: read-able is preferable to reada-ble; convert-ible to converti-ble.

11. Do not divide a word so that either part is unpronounceable.

Examples:

ship-ment, not shipm-ent; sal-vage, not salv-age; mem-ber, not memb-er; illus-trated, not illustr-ated.

12. Endeavor to divide the word so that the first part suggests what the rest of the word is to be. Do not divide so that the reader is led to infer the wrong pronunciation.

Examples:

re-adjust, not read-just (read may suggest readable or reading), plu-rality, not plural-ity; hide-ous suggests a word like hidebound, and no division is desirable; and ear-nest is hardly recognizable as earnest.

13. Avoid dividing a word after or before a single letter.

Examples:

enor-mous is preferable to e-normous, odious-ly is preferable to o-diously, bac-teria is preferable to bacteri-a, pana-cea to panace-a.

- 14. Do not divide the last word of a paragraph so that the next line consists of only a fragment of a word.
 - 15. Do not divide words between pages.

Compound or Hyphenated Words

It is sometimes difficult to decide whether a compound word or expression should be spelled as one word, like steamship; whether it should be hyphenated, like two-thirds; or whether the words should be separate, like public opinion. Often it is possible to settle the point by consulting the dictionary, but in many instances the compound expression will not be found in the dictionary and you must rely upon your own judgment.

In view of the fact, moreover, that current usage is so varied, and that often (as in the compounding of adjective phrases like "a well-to-do man") the decision depends upon the sense of the dictated matter, no rigid rules can

be given.

It should be borne in mind, however, that the chief purposes of hyphenation are to make the meaning clear to the reader. In this connection, note the difference in meaning between a crude oilman and a crude-oil man; between good looking-glasses and good-looking glasses; between the new stock-room and the new-stock room. Hyphenation is also used to avoid certain combinations of letters that may confuse the reader, as in wall-like (not walllike), and that may cause trouble in the pronunciation of the word, as in co-ordinate (not coordinate).

One of the best ways by which to acquire a good knowledge of this subject is to notice the usage in the magazines and newspapers that you read. The following sugges-

tions, however, may be of assistance:

Note.—Compound words are formed by adding to a complete word one or more independent words, as "self-defense" and "buttonhole"; by adding a prefix, as in "ex-mayor" and "subway"; or by adding a suffix, as in "steel-like" and "hopeful."

- 1. The hyphen should not be used unless clearness demands it. In fact, the tendency in business is to restrict its use. Many business houses no longer hyphenate such words as today, tomorrow, and tonight, though conservative writers still retain the hyphen. It is good practice to combine as one word closely related parts that have been used together so long as to have lost their separate meanings or have come to stand as one entity, as bondholder, bookkeeper, taxpayer. Loosely related parts (if independent words) should be written as separate words, as department store, life insurance company, card index.
- 2. Words compounded with man, power, ship are usually inseparable units, as foreman, workman, horse-power, waterpower, steamship, airship.

3. Compound adjectives preceding the noun they modify are usually written with the hyphen to express one attribute, as law-abiding citizen, well-to-do man, well-informed salesman, eight-cylinder car, long-deferred payment, thirty-first order, short-time investment, up-town office, cotton-andwool fabric, hard-and-fast rule.

Note.—This general rule also governs the following specific cases:

- a. Fractions are hyphenated, as in one-tenth interest; a two-thirds vote.
- b. Numerals, whether expressed in words or in figures, used in combination with another modifier, are united by a hyphen, as in a two-story house, ten-cent store, a 6-inch rope.
- 4. Compound adjectives used as predicate adjectives are usually written as two words.

Examples:

Our salesman is well informed on this matter: The office is up town.

Note.—Observe the difference in compound adjectives in this sentence:

"His well-deserved success in the chain-store field together with his recently acquired backing enabled him to organize a corporation that is now well known."

But note the hyphenation in such commonly used combinations as those shown in these sentences:

"His action was ill-advised." "He is well-to-do."

5. Prefixes and suffixes are usually joined to a word without the use of a hyphen.

Examples:

transatlantic, resell, sublet, semiannual, interstate, threefold, brotherhood, authorship, ladylike.

Exceptions:

a. In general, if the prefix ends and the word begins with the same

vowel, or if the letter following the prefix is a capital, use the hyphen, as in anti-imperial, anti-English, anti-British, co-ordinate, re-elected.

b. Always use the hyphen after ex, as in ex-officer, ex-Congressman.

c. The hyphen is generally used between a prefix and a word if the combination is similar to another in form but different in meaning.

Examples:

The soldiers were re-formed [formed into lines again]. The soldiers were reformed [their habits were amended]. He re-presented the argument [presented it again]. He represented his company at the convention [he performed the duties of].

- d. Use the hyphen after quasi, as in quasi-contract, quasi-corporation.
- e. If the word ends with doubled letters and the suffix begins with the same letter, the hyphen may generally be used, as in doll-like.
- 6. Points of the compass are generally written as one word, as *southeast*, *northwest*. But when one of the words is repeated, use the hyphen, as *south-southeast*.
- 7. Civil and military titles composed of two or more words may be hyphenated, as in sergeant-at-arms, lieutenant-colonel, commander-in-chief. [The United States Government Style Book, 1913, p. 92, attempts to standardize practice in such cases and gives the rule "Omit the hyphen in civil and military titles, as Attorney General...lieutenant colonel, etc." The trend of usage seems to favor this rule.]
- 8. Unusual combinations of words that express a unity of idea are commonly hyphenated, as "take-it-or-leave-it attitude," "bull-in-the-china-shop activities."

Use of Abbreviations

- 1. As a general rule it is not advisable to use abbreviations in the body of a letter, for the reader may not understand the abbreviation. Exceptions to this rule are such common and well-known abbreviations as *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *etc.*, and *a.m.*
- 2. Do not capitalize abbreviations unless the words themselves are properly capitalized; for examples, use c. o. d. instead of C. O. D., a.m., instead of A.M.; but A.D is properly capitalized and so are C. P. A. (Certified Public Accountant), B.A. (Bachelor of Arts), C. P. R. (Canadian Pacific Railroad).
- 3. Do not abbreviate Christian names, as Chas. for Charles, Wm. for William. Either use the full initials or spell out the name, as C. T. Brown or Charles T. Brown.
- 4. Most abbreviations are followed by a period. But if the abbreviation is a contraction, like *rec'd* and *ass'n* (association), the apostrophe is used to show that letters are omitted. The period is not needed. (See pages 151 and 152, rules 1 and 2.)
- 5. The period that indicates an abbreviation may be used with any other punctuation mark, but not with another period.

Right: The goods were sent c. o. d., for their credit rating was not good.

Right: We delivered the package to 215 West 10th St. (Not West 10th St..)

6. The plural of most abbreviations is formed by adding s.

107

Examples:

bldgs., lirs., mfrs., bbls., lbs.

Note.—The plural of B/L is written Bs/L and also B/Ls. The former seems to be the more logical form.

- 7. The authorized forms for O.K. are: O.K.'d, O.K.ing. O.K.'s.
- 8. Following is a list of the more common abbreviations and their meanings:

abst. abstract.

acct. or a/c account

A. D. In the year of our Lord bbl. barrel (Since the birth of Christ)

ad inf. (ad infinitum), without end

ad int. (ad interim), in the meantime

ad lib. (ad libitum), at pleasure

admr. administrator

admrx. administratrix

ad val. (ad valorem), according to value

advt. or ad. advertisement

agt. agent

A.M. or a.m. forenoon

amt. amount

anon. anonymous

ans. answer

apt. apartment

art. article

a/s account sales

assn. association

asst. assistant

asstd. assorted

att. attention av. average

Ave. avenue

A1 first class

bal. balance

b.b. bill book

bdl. bundle

bds. boards

B. C. Before Christ

b/e or b. e. bill of exchange

bas. bags

bk. bank; bark; book

bkt. basket

B/L or b/l bill of lading

bldg. building blk. black

bls. bales

b.m. board measure. b. o. buyer's option

Bro(s). Brother (Brothers)

bu. bushel

B/P Bills payable

B/R Bills receivable B/S bill of sale

bx. box

c. or cts. cents

c. a. d. cash against documents

c. a. f. cost and freight

cap. capital

c. b. cash book cf. compare

chap. chapter
chqd. charged
c. i. f. cost, insurance, freight
c. l. carload lots
Co. company
C/O or c/o care of
C. O. D. or c. o. d. cash on delivery
cr. creditor
c/r company's risk
c/s or cs. cases
ctg. cartage
c. w. o. cash with order

cwt. hundredweight

D. V. God willing

dwt. pennyweight

d. pence
dbk. drawback
d.d. day's date; days after date
d. & w. t. f. daily and weekly till
forbidden
deb. debenture
dept. department
dft. draft
disct. discount
div. dividend
d/o delivery order
do. ditto (the same)
doz. dozen
dr. debtor
d.s. days after sight
ds. days

ea. each
ed. editor
e. e. errors excepted
e. & o. e. errors and omissions
excepted
e. g. for example
Eng. English
e. o. d. every other day

e. o. m. end of month
et al. and others
etc. et cetera (and so forth)
et seq. and the following
ex. example
exch. or ex. exchange
ex cp. without coupon
ex div. or xd. without dividend
exp. expense
exp. express

f. a. a. free of all average f. a. q. fair average quality f. a. s. free aside ship f. or fol. folio fcp. foolscap fig. figure F. O. B. or f. o. b. free on board f. o. r. free on road; free on rail for'd forward f. o. s. free on steamer f. o. t. free on truck Fr. French fr. francs frt. or fgt. freight ft. feet or foot

g. a. general average
gal. gallon
gen. or gen'l general
g. m. q. good marketable quality
g. t. c. good till canceled
gr. gro. great gross
gro. gross
grs. grains; gross

hdl:f. handkerchief
hf. half
hhd. hogshead
h. p. horsepower
hund. hundred

i. b. invoice book

ib. or ibid. the same; from the same source

id. the same

i. e. that is

in. inches

Inc. Incorporated

ins. insurance

inst. instant (the present month)

int. interest

inv. invoice invt. inventory

I. O. U. I owe you

j/a joint account jour. journal ir. junior

k. carat

kg. keg

lb. pound or pounds

l. c. l. less than carload lots

1/c letter of eredit l. f. ledger folio

l. t. long ton

Ltd. Limited (With name of British firm it signifies a limited liability corpora-

tion)

M. thousand

m. or min. minute

max. maximum

mdse. merehandise

mem. or memo. memorandum

mfd. manufactured

mfg. manufacturing

mfr. manufacturer

mgr. manager

min. minimum

m. o. moncy order mss. manuscripts

m/s months after sight

mtq. mortgage

n. b. note carefully

n. g. no good

no.(s) number (s)

n. o. p. not otherwise provided for

N. P. Notary Public

o/d on demand

o. e. omissions excepted

O. K. all correct

o. r. owner's risk

oz. ounce or ounces

p. (pp.) page (pages)

p. & l. profit and loss

p. b. x. private board exchange

payt. payment

p. c. per cent

pc. piece pd. paid

pfd. preferred

pk. peck

pkg. package P.M. or p.m. afternoon

P. O. post office

pr. pair

pref. preferred

pres. president prin. principal

pro tem. for the time being

prox. next month P. S. postscript

q. e. d. which was to be proved qr. quarter; quire

qt. quart q. v. which see rec'd received recr. receiver reg. registered R. R. railroad ret'd returned r. f. d. rural free delivery r. s. v. p. please reply Ry. railway s. shillings s. a. subject to approval S/D sight draft sec. or secy. secretary sh. share shipt. shipment sic thus (Ordinarily bracketed w/b way bill in a quotation to certify that wk. week the preceding word is accurately quoted) sq. square

sr. senior s.s. steamship St. saint St. street stet restore stor. storage str. steamer super. superfine

t. ton t. b. trial balance

supt. superintendent

t/c till countermanded tcs. tierces t. f. till forbidden tel. telegraph t. m. o. telegraph money order ton. tonnage tr. transpose treas. treasurer

ult. last month ves. vessel

via by way of vid. see viz. namely vol. volume vs. versus

wt. weight

ud. vard ur. year

Commercial Characters

@ at a/c account & and % per cent c/o care of cents dollars pound sterling number

9. The following list contains the proper abbreviations of the names of states, territories, etc., according to the United States Style Book. If no abbreviation is recognized the full name is given.

Ala.	La.	Oreg.
Alaska	Mass.	P. I. (Philippine Islands)
Ariz.	Md.	P. R. (Porto Rico)
Ark.	Me.	Pa.
Cal.	Mich.	R. I.
Colo.	Minn.	S. C.
Conn.	Miss.	S. Dak.
D. C.	Mo.	Samoa
Del.	Mont.	Tenn.
Fla.	N. C.	Tex.
Ga.	N. Dak.	Utah
Guam	N. H.	Va.
Hawaii	N. J.	Virgin Islands of the
Idaho	N. Mex.	United States
III.	N. Y.	Vt.
Ind.	Nebr.	W. Va.
Iowa	Nev.	Wash.
Kans.	Ohio	Wis.
Ky.	Okla.	Wyo.
-		

10. The generally accepted abbreviations for the months and days of the week are as follows:

Months			Days	
Jan.	(May)	Sept.	Sun.	Thurs.
Feb.	(June)	Oct.	Mon.	Fri.
Mar.	(July)	Nov.	Tues.	Sat.
Apr.	Aug.	Dec.	Wed.	

Note.—In tables, accounts, and wherever matter must be *greatly* condensed, the following are used, but they are undesirable elsewhere:

Months		Days		
Ja.	My.	S.	Sn.	Th.
F.	Je.	0.	M.	F.
Mr.	Ju.	N.	Tu.	St.
Ap.	Ag.	D.	W.	
			112	

After You Have Finished the Work

After you have finished the work go over it carefully while it is in the machine, to make sure that you have not misspelled or transposed letters in any words. If you practice this safeguard you will be able to catch errors that otherwise may come to the dictator's attention.

Chapter VII

Common Misuses of Words

On the following pages you will find listed words and phrases that are commonly misused in letters. Read and study this list carefully, for you will find that this information will be of great use to you in your work.

- A, an. An is used before vowel sounds; a, before consonant sounds. The sound of a first letter of a word must be noticed, for a consonant is often silent and the word really begins with a vowel sound; on the other hand, some letters may be either vowels or consonants, according to their position, and hence the word may begin seemingly with a vowel, but actually begins with a consonant. Examples: a youth's suit, a union suit, an honor, such a one, a humble letter.
- Accept, except. Accept means to receive with a consenting mind, as in "They accepted the goods." Except [verb] means to exclude, as in "We want you to except the last clause of this contract." Except [preposition] means with the exception of, as in "We found everything except the box of lace."
- Affect, effect. Affect means to influence, as in "The price of the material was greatly affected by this rumor." Effect [verb] means to accomplish, to bring about, to cause, as in "This new system will effect a great saving." Effect [noun] means result, as in "The effect of the dissolution was immediately felt." Affect is never used as a noun. Effect is used both as a verb and as a noun. Affect has another meaning, to feign, as in "He affected surprise at my statement."

- Aggravate should never be used for annoy, vex, or exasperate. It means to make worse, as in "His financial difficulties were aggravated by this failure."
- All ready, already. Already is an adverb and means by this time, as in "When I had arrived, the business had already been completed." All ready, an adjective phrase, means wholly ready, prepared in every particular, as in "We are all ready to begin negotiations with you."
- All right should never be written alright.
- Almost, most. Almost should be used as an adverb; most, as an adjective or noun. "Most all the employees reported" is incorrect. Write "Almost all the employees reported," or "Most of the employees reported." [Most is also used as an adverb to form the superlative, as in "The most beautiful hat in stock."
- Alternative, choice. Alternative means the choice between only two things.

Correct: One of three courses. [Not "One of three alternatives."

He was given his alternative of these two courses of action.

He had his choice of five samples at the same price.

Among, between. Among is used in referring to more than two things; between, in referring to two only.

Correct: The dissension among the five firms arose over a

matter of rebating.

The differences between the two departments were soon settled.

- Amount should not be used for number. Do not say, "A large amount of people came to the store."
- Anyplace, everyplace, etc. Use in any place or anywhere, etc., as in "He could not find the letter anywhere [not anyplace]." Or. "He could not find the letter in any place [not any place]."

- Apt, liable, likely. Apt, usually applied to persons, implies habitual tendency or natural capability, as "He is apt to delay action on such a matter." "He is apt at figures." Apt, sometimes applied to things, is used in the sense of fitting, appropriate, as "You used an apt word in deseribing him." Liable expresses openness to something disadvantageous; it suggests danger, as "By breaking your contract, you have become liable to damages." Likely expresses probability, as in "It is likely [not apt, liable] to rain to-morrow."
- As . . . as, so . . . as. So . . . as is used in negative statements instead of as . . . as.

Correct: The catalogs are not so good looking as you said they would be.

- As, like. As is the correct word when a verb follows or is understood to follow. "He is not prompt in his payments like we are" is incorrect. It should be, "He is not prompt in his payments as we are." See Like.
- As, that. As should never be confused with that. "We do not know as we can do that" is incorrect.
- At about. Drop the at. "The letter was mailed at about two o'clock" is incorrect.
- Awful should not be used loosely. It means inspiring with awe. "He does awful work" is incorrect.
- Badly should not be used for very much or a great deal. "We want badly to have you come to see us" should read "We want very much to have you come to see us."
- Balance, remainder, rest. It is incorrect to say "We spent the balance of the day at his office." Balance means the difference between the two sides of an account, as in "Our balance at the bank is \$2,514." We say "The rest [not balance] of the directors stayed in the room," and "Kindly send the remainder [not balance] of the goods."
- Beside, besides, are not interchangeable. Besides means in addition to, moreover, as in "Besides this inducement, we can offer you others."

 Beside means near, close to, as in "His desk is beside the entrance."

 Never use beside of.

Best of any. Do not use best or any other superlative with any, as in the following sentences marked "Wrong":

Wrong: This pencil-sharpener is the best of any I've tried. Right: This pencil-sharpener is the best of those I've tried.

Wrong: My hats are the most stylish of any manufactured in America.

Right: My hats are the most stylish of those manufactured in America.

Blame it on is incorrectly used for put the blame on or blame. Blame a person [direct object] for a thing; do not blame the thing [it] on the person.

Both, each. Use both for two considered jointly; each, for one of two or more.

Correct: Each salesman [not both salesmen] was presented with a watch.

Each jobber [not both jobbers] tried to cut prices on the other.

Bound, determine. Bound refers to outside compulsion. Determine means a decision made by a person.

Correct: We are not bound by law to pay this debt, but we are determined to do so.

Bring, carry, fetch, take. These words have different meanings. Bring suggests motion toward the speaker, as in "Bring me that catalog." Take suggests motion away from the speaker, as in "Take these books from my desk." Fetch suggests going away from the speaker for a thing and returning with it. Carry suggests an indefinite motion.

But. Do not use but after a negative in the sense of only.

Wrong: There aren't but ten boxes left. Right: There are but ten boxes left.

But that is often incorrectly used for that.

Correct: We have no doubt that [not but that] you sent the full dozen.

It is not unlikely that [not but that] you overlooked this fact.

But what is often incorrectly used for that, but that, etc.

Correct: I don't know but that [not but what] he is right.

I don't doubt that [not but what] he will try it again.

There is no salesman who does not make [not but what makes; not but who makes] some errors in his report. But what is correctly used in "He wrote a long letter, but what he said was not important," and "He does nothing but what he wants to do."

Can, may. Can denotes power or ability and should not be used for may, which denotes permission.

Wrong: Can I forward these suits to you? Right: May I forward these suits to you?

- Cannot but. This expression should not be used interchangeably with can but, as the two expressions differ in meaning. The expression "We can but try" means "All we can do is to try." "We cannot but try" means "We cannot help trying."
- Can't seem is a vulgarism. Write "seem unable" or "do not seem able."

 Wrong: I can't seem to get it.

 Right: I seem unable to get it.
- Capacity, ability. Capacity means the power of receiving. It has reference to the receptive powers, as in "He has the capacity to learn."

 Ability means the power to perform, to do. It has reference to the active exercise of our faculties, as in "He has the ability to do this work."
- Character, reputation. A person's character is his real nature; his reputation is his supposed nature.
- Common, mutual. Common means belonging to more than one. Mutual means interchanged, reciprocal.

Wrong: Hawkins and I had a mutual purpose in calling on Davis & Co.

Right: Hawkins and I had a common purpose in calling on Davis & Co.

Right: Since that time, George and I have had a mutual respect for each other.

- Consul, council, counsel. A consul is an official governmental representative. A council is an assembly convened for consultation and advice. Counsel means advice or a legal adviser.
- Custom, habit. Custom means an action voluntarily repeated. Habit means a tendency to repeat a certain action without volition.
- Data is the plural of datum. Hence, we speak of these [not this] data, and say "My data were [not was] convincing."
- Deal is a vulgarism for transaction, arrangement, agreement, etc.
- Differ from, differ with. Persons, things, and opinions differ from one another; persons differ in opinion with one another. "I differ from him in attitude, but I do not differ with him with regard to the final action."
- Different than. "Our paint is different than all others" is incorrect. It should read "Our paint is different from all others." Different should not be completed by a than clause, but always by a from phrase.
- Directly is often misused for as soon as, as in "Directly we receive your order we shall ship it." This should read "As soon as we receive your order we shall ship it."
- Disagree is generally followed by with, not from.

Correct: He disagreed with me over the terms of the contract.

- Don't is a contraction of do not; therefore, it is ungrammatical when used with a subject in the third person singular. One may say "I don't," but not "He don't." Say "He doesn't."
- Due to should not be used unless it definitely refers to a noun. It is used in the sense of attributable.

Faulty: He succeeded, due to his persistence.

Correct: He succeeded because of his persistence. [Or,]
His success was due to his persistence.

Each other should not be used for one another. Each other should not be used unless each member of a group is represented as in a certain relation to every other member.

Wrong: The changes in the style of cloaks to be worn next

year are rapidly following each other.

Right: The changes in the style of cloaks to be worn next year are rapidly following one another.

Right: The two members of the firm are very much

devoted to each other.

Right: In this erisis we have decided to stand by each other.

> [Each member of the group governed by the word we has decided to stand by every other member.]

Effect. See Affect.

Either, neither. Either and neither should not be used to designate more than two persons or things. To designate one of three or more, write any one or none.

Wrong: The firm ordered three of its salesmen to report on

Friday, but neither of them came in.

Right: The firm ordered three of its salesmen to report on Friday, but none of them came in.

Else. Write "Somebody else's desk"; not "Somebody's else desk."

Enormity, enormousness. Enormity has reference to moral quality; enormousness to size.

Right: He does not realize the enormity of his erime.

Right: The enormousness of the undertaking did not affect them.

Enthuse. Not in good use.

Correct: He became enthusiastic [not enthused].

The sales prospects made me enthusiastic [not enthused mel.

Everyplace. See Anyplace.

Excellent should not be qualified; it is superlative.

Wrong: This proposition is most excellent.

Right: This proposition is excellent.

Except (verb). See Accept.

Except (preposition) should not be used as a conjunction.

Wrong: The shippers won't do that except you ask them. Right: The shippers won't do that unless you ask them.

Exceptional, exceptionable. Exceptional means forming or making an exception, out of the ordinary. Exceptionable means liable to objection.

Correct: In exceptional cases, we do allow an extra discount

of 2 per cent.

I considered his manner of speaking exceptionable. [Compare with "I took exception to his manner of speaking."]

Expect, suppose, suspect. Expect means to entertain at least a slight belief that an event will happen. Suppose means to believe, to receive as true. Suspect means to mistrust, to imagine that something exists, but without proof.

Correct: I suppose [not expect] that is so.

I expect [not suspect] that he will telephone to us. I suspect that he has not treated us fairly.

- Farther, further. Farther refers to distance; further, to that which is more or additional. "We wrote nothing further." "He is farther from his source of supply than is any other dealer."
- Fewer, less. Fewer refers to number; less, to amount, degree, quantity, etc.

Correct: The fewer [not less] accounts we have, the less money we shall need.

Find, locate. Find means to come upon by seeking. Locate means to set in a particular place.

Correct: I could not find [not locate] you in your office yes-

terday.

We shall locate our store in New Haven.

- Former, latter. Former and latter should not be used to designate one of more than two persons or things. For designating one of three or more, say "first," "first-named," or "last," "last-named."
- Got is very often misused. "What has that got to do with it?" should be "What has that to do with it?" "We have got to leave" should

be "We are obliged to leave." "Have you got time?" should be "Have you time?" "I have got their order" is correct because it means "I have secured their order." Got should, therefore, not be used unless the intended meaning is secured.

Gotten is an obsolete form. Say got.

Had of. See Of.

Had ought. Ought is never used with an auxiliary.

Wrong: He had ought to have written.

Right: He ought to have written.

Hanged, hung. Hanged should be used in reference only to an execution, as in "Hanged on the gallows."

Wrong: Many pictures had been hanged in the display

window.

Right: Many pictures had been hung in the display window.

Hardly. Do not use hardly after a negative.

Wrong: We couldn't hardly change our plans now. Right: We could hardly change our plans now.

Have got. See Got.

Healthy, healthful, wholesome. We say "a healthy [possessing health] man"; "a healthful [conducive to health] place"; "wholesome food."

Help should not be used for employees, workers, etc.

Imply, infer. Imply means virtually to include or virtually to mean, as in "Your attitude implies that you desire to break your contract."

Infer means to conclude, to deduce, as in "I infer from your attitude that you desire to break your contract."

In is generally incorrect when used to express motion. Use into.

Correct: We saw him just as he stepped into [not in] the store.

Infer. See Imply.

- Inside of. In expressions of time, say within, as in "This will be shipped within four days." [Not "inside of four days."]
- Its, it's. The possessive pronoun is its. It's is the abbreviation of it is.
- Kind, sort, are singular. Do not say "We do not have those kind of books in stock."

Kind of, sort of (1) should not be followed by a or an.

Wrong: We do not have that kind of an engine. Right: We do not have that kind of engine.

Wrong: What sort of a man is he? Right: What sort of man is he?

———— (2) should not be used to modify verbs or adjectives; say somewhat, somehow, or rather.

> Wrong: Business is sort of quiet. Right: Business is rather quiet.

Correct: I rather [not kind of] thought that he would do that.

Kindly. Be careful of the position of kindly.

Wrong: We kindly ask that you let us know by return mail. Right: We ask that you kindly let us know by return mail.

Lay, lie, are frequently confounded. Lay [to put down] is a transitive verb and takes an object. Lie [to recline] is an intransitive verb and does not take an object. The principal parts are:

Present Past Perfect
I lie I lay I have lain
I lay I laid I have laid

Correct: I left the office and went home to *lie* down.

He *laid* the file on my desk.

Feeling sick, he *lay* down.

Feeling tired, I *laid* the books on the table.

Leave, let. Leave means to abandon; let means to allow.

Correct: Let [not leave] him be.

Let [not leave] that stand as it is.

Led, lead. Lead is commonly misused for the past tense [led] of to lead.

Less. See Fewer.

Liable. See Apt.

Like sometimes means similar to, as in "The selling plan was like one of which we had heard before." "He is like the old Mr. Arth."

Like, in the sense of in the same manner as, is followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, and is called by some grammarians an adverb; by others, a preposition—e.g., "He writes like the bookkeeper." "He talks like me." Like should never be used to introduce a subject with a verb; use as or as if.

Correct: Do this as [not like] we want you to do it.

Do as [not like] I do.

It looks as if [not like] it may snow to-morrow.

Likely. See Apt.

Lose, loose. Loose is commonly misused for lose.

Correct: If we lose [not loose] this sale you are to blame. Loose means to untie, to set free.

Loose means to antie, to set free.

Lot, lots. Lot means a distinct part or parcel. Do not use for much or many.

Correct: We know many [not lots of] business concerns that will be glad to buy this appliance.

Majority, plurality, most. Majority means more than half the whole number, as in "The majority of the directors favored my plan." [This suggests a formal count of votes.] "Most of the directors favored my plan." [This suggests an informal test of opinion.] Use most for the greater number in ordinary cases, when a technical majority or plurality is not meant. Majority is sometimes used to designate the number by which votes cast for one candidate exceed those of the opposition, as in "He was elected treasurer by a majority of five votes." Plurality designates a number greater than any other one number within the whole. In an election, A receives 612 votes; B, 514 votes; and C, 230 votes. A's 612 votes constitutes a plurality, but not a majority. A's plurality [the excess of votes over the nearest competitor] is 98 votes.

Might of. See Of.

Most. See Almost. See Majority.

Much, many. Do not use much for many. Much refers to quantity; many, to number.

Wrong: We shipped as much as twenty-five boxes. Right: We shipped as many as twenty-five boxes.

Much too very Do not use too or very with participles when the very

Much, too, very. Do not use too or very with participles when the verbal idea prevails. Use much, too much, or very much.

Wrong: I was too disturbed to take any action.

Right: I was too much disturbed to take any action.

Wrong: We were very pleased to receive your letter. Right: We were much pleased to receive your letter.

Must of. See Of.

Myself is an intensive or reflexive pronoun. Do not use it when the simple personal pronoun [I or me] will suffice.

Correct: The chief engineer and I [not myself] inspected the

factory.

He wrote to John and me [not myself].

Near should not be used for nearly.

Wrong: The final returns from this bond will be not *near* so much as from the other.

Right: The final returns from this bond will be not *nearly* so much as from the other.

Neither. Do not use neither with reference to more than two objects.

Wrong: Neither of the four applicants came to the office.

Right: Not one of the four applicants came to the office.

Notoriety, notorious, are almost always used in an ill or unfavorable sense, as in "The notoriety of his crime" and "a notorious thief." Say "a business man of note" [not a notorious business man, unless you mean "a business man of ill repute"]; say "much publicity was given to this real-estate transaction" [not notoriety, unless you mean unpleasant publicity].

Of. Could of, may of, might of, must of, should of, and would of are illiterate vulgarisms for could have, may have, might have, must have, should have, and would have.

Off of. Of is unnecessary.

Right: When we took the cover off [not off of] the box, we noticed that the contents seemed to be damaged.

One. "Not a one returned to work." Omit a.

Ones. Do not say the ones; say those.

Wrong: The ones we have received are shop-worn. Right: Those we have received are shop-worn.

Only is very commonly misplaced, so that the real meaning is not clear. Place only next to the word or phrase to be qualified.

He only signed the letter. [He did not dictate it.]

He signed only the letter. [He did not sign anything else.] Only he signed the letter. [No one else signed it.]

He signed the letter only. [He did not sign anything else.]

Onto. Upon, or some equivalent expression, is usually preferable.

Ought. See Had.

Partial may mean incomplete or biased. Hence, ambiguity sometimes arises, as in "His letter contained a partial statement [incomplete? biased?] of the accident." Whenever you use partial, guard against such ambiguity.

Party means a person or group of persons taking part. It is incorrectly used to mean simply a person, except in legal phrases.

> Wrong: The party who ordered the samples was Fred Jones. Right: The person who ordered the samples was Fred Jones.

Right: The contracting parties signed the lease. Right: Each party to the contract was satisfied.

Per cent., percentage. Per cent or per cent. means per hundred. Percentage is a noun meaning rate per cent, rate per hundred.

Correct: The legal rate is six per cent.

In addition to my salary, I receive a percentage [not per cent on all sales.

Plenty is incorrect when used as an adverb.

Wrong: He is plenty good for us and should be for you. Right: He is good enough for us and should be for you.

Plurality. See Majority.

Posted. Use inform instead. Ledgers are posted. "He is well informed [not posted] on that point."

Practicable, practical. Practicable means capable of being put into practice, feasible. It is never used of persons, but of things only. "His plan is practicable." Practical, used of persons, means experienced by actual practice, as in "He is a practical man in the candy business." Practical, used of things, means valuable in practice, useful as opposed to theoretical, as in "He has a practical knowledge of this business."

Prefer should be completed by to, above, or before; not by than, or rather than.

Wrong: I prefer this style of hat rather than that style.

Right: I prefer this style of hat to that style.

Wrong: We prefer dealing with you than with any one else. Right: We prefer dealing with you to dealing with any one else.

Principal, principle. Principal [noun] means a leader or chief; the employer of one who acts as agent; a sum on which interest accrues. Principal [adjective] means highest in character, rank, or importance. Principle is used only as a noun and means a general truth, information, or belief.

Correct: The principal of this note must be paid by January 8.

He is the *principal* of the school. The *principal* man is the Mayor.

It is the principle of the case which interests us.

Propose means to offer for consideration, as in "I proposed that we should enter the candy business." Do not use propose for intend or purpose.

Wrong: I propose to tell you the whole story. Right: I intend to tell you the whole story.

Proposition means a thing proposed or the act of proposing. Do not use for work, task, problem, project, etc.

Correct: To handle these forty salesmen is a hard task [not

proposition].

Proven should not be used except as an adjective; otherwise use proved.

Provided, providing. Do not use the participle providing [meaning to furnish] in place of the conjunction provided [meaning on condition that, if].

Wrong: Providing the firm is willing, I shall be glad to

handle that.

Right: Provided the firm is willing, I shall be glad to handle that.

Quantity should not be used for number. See Amount.

Wrong: We have had a large quantity of suits returned to us. Right: We have had a large number of suits returned to us.

Rarely ever. Do not use. Say rarely or hardly ever.

Wrong: They rarely ever act as agents.

Right: They rarely act as agents. [Or,] They hardly ever act as agents.

Real. Do not use for very.

Wrong: We consider this a real good offer. Right: We consider this a very good offer.

Reason is, the. Such an expression as the reason is should not be completed with (1) a because of phrase, as in "The reason he did not agree to the contract was because of their impatience," (2) a because clause, as in "The reason he did not agree to the contract was because they were impatient," (3) a due to phrase, as in "The reason he did not agree to the contract was due to their impatience." Complete it with a that clause, as in "The reason he did not sell was that the price offered was too low."

Same. Do not use for it, they, etc., except in legal or quasi-legal writing. Wrong: We have received your order and shall fill same within five days.

Right: We have received your order and shall fill it within five days.

Wrong: We are sending you two extra parts. If you eannot

use the same, kindly return them to us.

Right: We are sending you two extra parts. If you cannot use them, kindly return them to us.

Scarcely. Do not use scarcely after a negative.

Wrong: There was not scarcely five dollars in the cash register.

Right: There was scarcely five dollars in the cash register.

Seem, can't seem. See Can't.

Seldom or ever. Used incorrectly for seldom or never, and seldom if ever.

Should of. See Of.

Show up. Vulgarly used in the sense of appear, come, be present, or in the sense of show or expose.

Wrong: He showed up at the last minute. Right: He appeared at the last minute.

Wrong: We are going to show up your last transaction. Right: We are going to expose your last transaction.

Size. Do not use size as an adjective; use sized or of size.

Wrong: We are sure that you can use these larger size plates.

Right: We are sure that you can use these larger sized plates.

Wrong: We have in stock every size tire. Right: We have in stock tires of every size.

Size up. Vulgarly used in the sense of judge, estimate, as "It didn't take long to size him up."

Some is often incorrectly used for somewhat.

Correct: This plot of land is somewhat larger than French's.
[Not some larger.]

Some place. Misused for somewhere.

Correct: He put it somewhere [not some place].

Sort of. See Kind of.

Such. (1) Do not use who, which, or that in the relative clause completing such; use as.

Wrong: He offered to complete the transaction under such conditions that we proposed.

Wrong: Such officers who see fit should sign and mail the inclosed card.

(2) When such is completed by a result clause use that alone, not so that.

Wrong: We are bound by *such* an agreement *so that* we are unable to do business with you.

Right: We are bound by such an agreement that we are unable to do business with you.

Take used in connection with other verbs is sometimes superfluous.

Wrong: Take and use the bottle of polish which we are sending to you.

Right: Use the bottle of polish which we are sending to you.

That [relative pronoun]. See Who.

That there. See This here.

Therefore, therefor, are often confounded. Therefore means for that reason, as in "As we have carefully tested this varnish for five years, we therefore recommend it to you." Therefor means for that, for this, for it, as in "The party of the second part agrees to pay therefor the sum of \$500."

These here. See This here.

These kind, these sort. See Kind.

This here, these here, that there, those there. Do not use. Say this, these, those, or that.

Through. Do not use in the sense of finished, left.

Wrong: We are not through with the construction of the building.

Right: We have not *finished* with the construction of the building.

Wrong: He got through with us in April.

Right: He left us in April.

Till, until, are interchangeable when the meaning is to the time of.

To [preposition] is often carelessly used for too [adverb].

Correct: He has gone too [not to] far in this matter.

Too alone should not modify a past participle, as in "I was too disturbed to do anything." Insert much. See Much.

Transpire is not correctly used in the sense of occur or happen. It means to become known.

Wrong: The robbery transpired in broad daylight. Right: The robbery occurred in broad daylight.

Unique means the only one of its kind. It does not mean odd or rare.

Correct: These Japanese prints are very rare [not unique].

Unique is incapable of comparison. We cannot say "These wrist watches are most unique."

Up should not be used with such words as divide, finish, open, settle, write; as in "He finished up his work and then wrote up his report."

Very is a much overworked word. Like best, it has lost a great deal of its power. See Much, also.

Way should be used with a preposition.

Wrong: Why did you act that way? Right: Why did you act in that way?

What. See But what.

Where is often misused for that.

Wrong: I saw in your report where we should use a new system.

Right: I saw in your report your recommendation that we should use a new system.

Which. Do not use which to refer to persons. See Who.

Wrong: The employees which signed that paper ought to be discharged.

Right: The employees who signed that paper ought to be discharged.

Who, which, that [as relative pronouns]. Who relates usually to persons, as in "We shall send our attorney, who will try to make an agreement with you." It is usually better to use which in referring to animals. Which relates to animals and things, as in "The cattle which we shipped you should have been looked after more carefully," "Some of the books which we received were damaged." That relates to persons, animals, and things, as in "The only man that can do this kind of advertising is Frank Worth," "Prices ruled low on all the calves that we sent to Chieago," "The only point that you should remember is the quality of this silk." Who and which introduce both restrictive and unrestrictive clauses; that, usually a restrictive clause only. [See page 139, rule 18, notes 1 and 2.]

Wholesome. See Healthy.

Whose is the possessive case of who and not of which. Do not use it in referring to inanimate things.

Wrong: I turned to the next page, on whose margin certain

figures had been written.

Right: I turned to the next page, on the margin of which certain figures had been written.

Without should not be used in the sense of unless.

Wrong: I told him not to do that without he first asked me.

Chapter VIII

How to Punctuate and Capitalize

The Ability to Punctuate Correctly

THE ability to punctuate correctly is an essential part of the general ability that the good stenographer must possess. It is as much a part of her stock in trade as is her ability to take dictation in shorthand. This statement is true because of the fact that a letter which is incorrectly or inadequately punctuated often lacks clearness or conveys a meaning the dictator did not intend. Hence, the effect of incorrect punctuating may offset the correct taking of dictation. Consider this sentence, taken from a letter: "I found him in the hallway smoking a thing I do not like to see." What the dictator had in mind was this: "I found him in the hallway smoking-a thing I do not like to see." The omission of the dash entirely changed the meaning. And here is another example showing how the omission of a punctuation mark can obscure the meaning of a sentence: "As he refused to pay his account was handed to our attorneys for collection." A comma is needed after "pay" if the reader is to secure the correct sense when he reads the sentence the first time.

In view of the fact that many dictators do not dictate the punctuation to go into the letter, it is necessary that

the stenographer be able to supply the proper punctuation. To do this so that the dictator's meaning will be correctly and exactly set forth, the stenographer must have at her finger tips such a ready command of punctuation that she can insert just the right marks while she is taking the dictation. It is hardly possible to do this correctly after the dictation, for by that time she may have forgotten the sense of the dictation, the pauses and intonations of the dictator, and the other matters which at the time of dictation will tell her how this sentence and that sentence should be punctuated.

What Punctuation Is

Punctuation is a device for indicating to the reader the exact meaning, sense, and emphasis of the writer's thought. It helps to suggest pauses, inflections, and intonations that in speaking are so useful in making thoughts elear. In some instances (abbreviations, for example) the rules are binding; in other instances, the rules permit of the use of personal judgment. But in order to exercise your judgment wisely you should know, and know well, the precise result in meaning that is secured by the use of the various punctuation marks. Study the following rules and master them—not in a mechanical way, but in a way that will help you to indicate unmistakably to the reader the dictator's exact meaning.

Uses of the Comma (,)

1. The comma (,) indicates the smallest degree of separation. It suggests that the thought is still unfinished and that the words which follow are closely related with those which precede.

2. To separate long numbers for quick and easy comprehension, use commas to divide the figures into groups of threes. The division begins at the end of the number, or at the decimal point, if there is one, and proceeds to the left.

Right: 84,107,932 Right: \$73,666.67

Note.—It is good practice not to use commas to divide into groups of threes the serial numbers of bonds, stocks, insurance policies, etc.

Three 8% U. S. Rubber Co. debenture bonds, numbered respectively A34685, A34686, and A28690.

3. After the salutation of a letter, use the colon or comma.

Right: Dear Sir: Dear John,

4. To indicate the omission of words that can easily be supplied by the reader [called an ellipsis], use the comma.

Right: Price, \$2.50

Right: Some of the ooxes were snipped yesterday; the rest, to-day.

5. After each of a series of words or phrases in the same construction, unless they are all connected by conjunctions, use a comma.

Right: The colors are red, white, and blue.

Note.—The comma is sometimes omitted between the last two members of the series when the conjunction and

is used, but the safer practice is to insert it. For example, in such a series as "Omelettes: plain, jelly, ham, Spanish onion and cheese," it is easy to misinterpret the lastnamed varieties as a single combination. A comma after the word "onion" prevents this mistake.

6. Between the members of a series of adjectives or adverbs that are eo-ordinate in construction, equal in value, and not connected by conjunctions, use commas.

Right: She is a willing, steady worker. Right: We have shipped a large open boat.

[Here the adjectives are not co-ordinate in thought; "open" modifies "boat"; "large" further modifies the general term "open boat."]

Right: Send me a sample of pure white Castile soap.

[Each of these adjectives limits to a smaller group the general group indicated by all the words that follow.]

NOTE.—To determine whether adjectives or adverbs are eo-ordinate and equal, see whether their order might properly be changed and whether they might properly be eonneeted by the conjunction "and."

7. To set off a noun used in apposition with, or in explanation of, another noun or pronoun, use commas.

Right: You will understand, Mr. Fall, that we have done our best in this matter.

Right: He stayed at our headquarters, the Hotel Astor.

8. To separate the elements of a date or address, use the comma.

Right: Springfield, Mass.

Note.—In England it is customary to set off the name of the menth from the number of the day, as "January, 12, 1921."

- 9. Commas are unnecessary at the ends of the lines composing an inside address or envelope superscription, although the more conservative practice is to include them there. The tendency in business, however, is to omit punctuation where separations are made by other means.
- 10. To set off from the rest of the sentence any connective that breaks the continuity of thought, especially the adverbs however, too, perhaps, and indeed, use commas.

Right: Your first letter, however, has not reached us.

Note.—The ordinary conjunctives at the beginning of the sentence do not require to be set off in this way.

11. To set off a descriptive or explanatory participial phrase, or any absolute participial phrase, use commas.

Right: Denying that he was responsible for the loss, he refused to pay.

Right: Our factory being oversold, we are unable to accept your order.

12. To separate from the context any short quotation introduced directly, but informally, as the words of a speaker, use commas with the quotation marks. [But see page 150, rule 2.]

Right: When we read in his letter, "I shall be sure to send word on Friday," we awaited his message.

Note.—For long quotations formally introduced see page 144, rule 6.

13. Use a comma to separate any two sentence elements that might be misunderstood if read together.

Wrong: Ever since we have refused to do business with them. Right: Ever since, we have refused to do business with them.

Right: I tell you, you are hurting only yourself by your attitude. Right: We have done this, not because it is our policy, but because this is an exceptional case.

Right: You should have taken his point of view, not your own.

Note.—A declarative sentence, when quoted within a sentence, has a comma at the end instead of a period. A declarative sentence in marks of parenthesis usually has no other punctuation at the end.

Right: When he said, "I am prepared to undertake the job,"
I handed over the contract (this was according to your
own instructions) and he signed it.

14. A short dependent clause directly following its independent clause and closely connected with it is not separated from it by any punctuation mark.

Right: His plan received general approval although it was still incomplete.

Note.—In case either clause is extremely long, the comma may be used to separate them.

15. A dependent clause preceding its independent clause is usually separated from it by a comma.

Right: Although his plan was incomplete, it received general approval.

16. A dependent clause which breaks the continuity of the independent clause is set off from it by commas.

Right: His plan, although it was incomplete, received general approval.

17. A non-restrictive relative clause introduced by who, which, that, and similar pronouns, is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Right: Louis, who has been with us only two years, is our best salesman.

18. A restrictive clause is not separated from the rest of the sentence.

Right: An investment which nets about 4% is what I am looking for.

Note 1.—The following test may be used to decide whether a given clause or phrase is restrictive or non-restrictive. If the main assertion in the sentence remains unchanged in meaning and can stand alone when the clause or phrase is omitted, the clause or phrase is non-restrictive. If the main assertion of the sentence is incomplete and cannot stand alone in meaning unless the clause or phrase be present, the clause or phrase is restrictive. In the sentence, "Louis, who has been with us only two years, is our best salesman," the clause "who has been with us only two years" may be omitted, and the main assertion is unaffected, namely, "Louis is our best salesman." But in the sentence "An investment which nets about 4% is what I am looking for," the clause

"which nets about 4%" cannot be omitted from the sentence, for then the sentence would read, "An investment is what I am looking for," which does not give the real meaning. In this latter case, therefore, the clause is restrictive.

Note 2.—That almost invariably indicates a restrictive clause. Who and which may indicate either a restrictive or a non-restrictive clause.

19. A dependent clause that is essential for the completeness of the grammatical construction or the idea of the principal clause is not separated from it.

Wrong: I said, that I would go. Right: I said that I would go.

20. Two short independent clauses connected by one of the simple conjunctions, such as and, but, or, and for, are separated by the comma.

Right: We are entitled to this privilege, for we have maintained an average balance of \$500.

Note.—No comma is usually needed between two parallel predicates having the same subject or between two very short clauses.

Right: We are entitled to this discount and intend to have it. Right: You want it and you shall have it.

21. Two independent clauses not connected by any conjunction usually require some other mark than the comma. Violation of this rule is known as the "comma fault." The only exception is the case of a series of short

independent clauses, parallel in form, and closely connected in idea.

Wrong: There are only a few of these machines left, we are selling them at a great reduction.

Right: There are only a few of these machines left. We are selling them at a great reduction.

Right: He wrote, he telephoned, he telegraphed.

Uses of the Semicolon (;).

- 1. The semicolon (;) indicates a wider degree of separation than does the comma, usually a separation between clauses.
- 2. Two independent clauses that are co-ordinate or contrasted in idea, but are not connected by a conjunction, are usually separated by a semicolon.
 - Right: Ten years from now this machine will not be in the scrapheap; it will be running as smoothly and silently as it is to-day.
- 3. Two independent clauses joined by one of the weaker or less common connectives, such as accordingly, besides, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, so, still, then, therefore, thus, and the like, are separated by a semicolon.

Wrong: This camera is made of aluminum, therefore it is very light.

Right: This camera is made of aluminum; therefore it is very light.

Wrong: You see, the motor had too much oil, then it heated up and smoked like a volcano.

Right: You see, the motor had too much oil; then it heated up and smoked like a volcano.

4. Two independent clauses that are long or complex, and contain commas themselves, are usually separated by the semicolon, even when joined by and and but.

Right: Although every preeaution was taken to pack the goods carefully, they suffered considerable damage, with resulting loss to us; and unfortunately this state of affairs seems likely to continue indefinitely.

5. Any two clauses or other elements of a complex or compound sentence may be separated by semicolons, when commas would not make their relationship clear.

Right: We have been informed that he has refused to honor his draft; that he has paid none of his bills, although here-tofore he has borne a good reputation in this respect; and that his bank account is greatly depleted.

Wrong: If we had your territory, we should sell this product to every banker, and merchant, and nobody would escape us.

Right: If we had your territory, we should sell this product to every banker and merehant; and nobody would escape us.

6. Two independent clauses connected by and, but, or one of the other common conjunctions, may be emphasized by using the semicolon instead of the comma for separation. [See page 140, rule 20.]

Right: The books have been audited; but the error has not been found.

Uses of the Colon (:)

1. The colon (:) indicates a still wider degree of separation and suggests that what follows is equivalent in some way to what precedes.

2. After the salutation of a letter the colon or comma is used.

Gentlemen:

3. Between the hours and minutes indicating exact time, use the colon.

Right: Your train leaves at 9:45.

4. Between two independent clauses that are substantially equal in idea and that are not joined by any conjunction, the colon is used. This rule covers the many cases in which the first clause clearly anticipates and points to the idea of the second.

Right: A man is judged by the company he keeps: to be included in this list is in itself a proof of merit.

Right: There can be only one reason for his silence: he is unable to answer.

5. Any series of clauses, group of ideas, or enumeration that is connected with the preceding part of the sentence by such expressions as namely, that is, i.e., or the like, is set off by the colon. This rule holds good in cases where the connective is not expressed, but is understood, as is usual when the preceding clause ends "as follows." [The rule does not apply to cases where a single clause follows the connective; in such cases use the semicolon. See page 142, rule 4.]

Right: Up to the present time, we have opened five new accounts: namely, the Johnson Company, The Smith Company, The White Company, The Jones Company, and the Stone-Black Company.

Right: The functions of modern industry may be divided into three parts, as follows: producing, marketing, financing.

Note.—An enumeration following the colon may be very long and consist of several sentences or even paragraphs. Wherever each item can be written as a clause or sentence it is preferable to make a separate paragraph of each one, and to separate them by semicolons. The last one, of course, ends with a period.

Right: In arranging the typography of a page the following points should be kept in mind:

First, see that the type matter is centered slightly above the mathematical center;

Second, see that the margins are ample, with the widest margin at the bottom and the next widest at the top;

Third, see that the type is easy to read, and that the lines are not more than four and one-half inches long.

6. After a word, phrase, or clause that introduces a long quotation, especially one that contains more than one sentence, use the colon.

I quote from his report: "There is great need of standardization in our letters. In one day's mail, fourteen different styles of make-up were discovered. Many of these were correct, but a few were sadly defective."

Note.—Even a short quotation at the end of a sentence may be preceded by a colon if the introduction is formal.

Right: These were his exact words: "It will cost at least two millions."

Uses of the Period (.)

1. The period (.) is the widest mark of separation and indicates that a thought has been completed.

2. After every complete declarative sentence use a period.

Right: This work will have my personal supervision.

3. For extreme emphasis two independent clauses, whether connected by conjunctions or not, can be isolated and written as two separate sentences. The period here marks the widest possible degree of separation.

Right: He promised prompt delivery. But I did not believe him.

4. After abbreviations that are not contractions, use the period.

Right: The Ass'n and the Co. are agreed on Mr. John Brown, M. E., as See'y and Treas.

Note.—If the abbreviation is formed by the omission of letters and the apostrophe is used to indicate the omission, the period at the end is unnecessary.

5. Periods are unnecessary after numerals, whether Roman or Arabic.

Right: In Chapter XX, page 37, the author discusses this question.

Uses of the Exclamation Point (!)

1. After every complete exclamatory sentence use an exclamation mark.

Right: What a mistake that was!

2. Exclamations are not always grammatically complete. If a fragmentary thought is intended to stand

alone, it is usually best to consider it as an exclamation and use the exclamation mark.

Right: Twenty dollars! And for that! Profiteering, pure and simple!

3. The exclamation mark inclosed in parentheses suggests irony.

This token of respect (!) was received in silence.

Uses of the Dash (-)

- 1. The dash (—) indicates abruptness of change from one idea or part of an idea to another.
- 2. To join numbers indicating the extremes of a series that includes all intervening members, use the dash.

Right: 1914-1918 (This indicates a period of time beginning in 1914, proceeding through 1915, 1916, and 1917, and ending in 1918.)

Right: Chapters VII-XII

3. Parenthetical phrases or clauses, ordinarily set off by commas or parentheses, may be set off by dashes for greater emphasis. [This device is frequently overworked.]

Right: The more you smoke our mixture—you will soon find this out—the more you will like it. [Compare with rule 2, page 148.]

Right: The checking device—our new feature—adds much to its efficiency.

4. In place of the comma in any of its functions the dash may be used to secure abruptness of effect and thereby emphasize the ideas.

Right: Down—down—down have gone our prices. [Contrast the effect of "Down, down, down have gone our prices," and "Down! Down! Down have gone our prices!"]

5. To secure a pause before an important word, especially at the end of a sentence, a dash may be used, even though no mark of punctuation is ordinarily required there.

Right: The secret of our success is-service.

6. At the end of an unfinished statement, whether grammatically complete or not, a dash may be used to suggest to the reader the fact that he is expected to supply the rest of the idea himself.

Right: It's an ill wind— Right: And as for the price—

7. To secure the suggestion of haste or urgency, a series of short sentences may be run together, separated only by dashes instead of periods.

Don't miss this chance—to-morrow may be too late—decide now—sign the card and mail it.

8. The dash is used before a word that sums up a preceding part of the sentence, as in "His stock certificates, his bonds, his insurance policies—all were found in the safe-deposit box."

Uses of Parentheses ()

1. Parentheses () indicate that the material within them is merely explanatory and might have been omitted. If read aloud, this material would probably be spoken as an aside.

2. A complete sentence or independent clause interpolated in a sentence by way of explanation should be set off by marks of parenthesis. [See also rule 3, page 146.]

Right: If you will take up this question with Mr. F. W. Banks (he is the new manager of our Chicago office), we believe that he will be able to remedy the trouble.

Uses of Brackets []

- 1. Brackets [] are similar to parentheses, but indicate that the material within is independent of the rest of the sentence or is supplied by some one other than the writer of the rest of the passage, as, for example, an editor.
- 2. Brackets are used in the same manner as parentheses, but emphasize the fact that the material inclosed was inserted by some one other than the author of the rest of the passage. In business messages they are most commonly used in quotations to explain some matter which might otherwise be obscure.

Right: This was your promise: "Next month [September] I will surely send you a check."

Note.—The comparatively rare use of brackets in business messages is evidenced by the fact that many type-writers do not have these marks.

Uses of Quotation Marks (" ")

1. Quotation marks ("") indicate that the material within them contains the exact words of some speaker or writer, whether he is specifically named or not.

Wrong: They telegraphed that "they were coming." Right: They telegraphed, "We are coming."

2. In an indirect quotation, quotation marks are not required, but may be used to emphasize the fact that the exact words of a speaker are repeated. Care should be taken not to place within the quotation marks any words not actually used by the speaker.

Wrong: One user says "that his maintenance cost was less than ten dollars for two years."

Right: One user says, "My maintenance cost was less than

ten dollars for two years."

Right: One user says that his maintenance cost was less than ten dollars for two years.

Right (more emphatic): One user says that his maintenance cost was "less than ten dollars for two years."

3. Long quotations, covering more than one paragraph, should have quotation marks at the beginning and end of the whole quotation and also at the beginning of every paragraph. This method emphasizes the fact that the quotation is continued: Formerly it was the custom to repeat the quotation marks at the beginning of each line, but such emphasis is rarely needed and the practice is no longer common except in messages of legal or quasi-legal character.

Right: Lord & Thomas say:

"I have wanted to write you for some time in appreciation of your data service. I find it of threefold value: first, in saving much time; second, in bringing to my attention the work of many bright minds; third, in providing a ready reference on numerous trade, advertising, and economic subjects. We keep a permanent file of your bulletins and index cards, and can always call on our librarian for helpful data bearing on the subject that we are looking for.

"I congratulate you on the success you are having."

4. Single quotation marks (' ') are used to inclose a speech within a speech.

Right: He wrote, "I have seen Mr. John Lewis, who said, 'Ship no more orders until I let you know."

Punctuation of Quoted or Parenthetical Material

1. With quotation marks other marks may be used. Even here, however, only one other mark should accompany the quotation marks. The position of this depends on whether it belongs to the quoted material only or to the sentence as a whole. A period or comma always goes within the quotes; other marks go outside unless they properly belong to the quoted material

Right: Don't say "aint"; the correct form is "am not."

Wrong: He wrote, "Where did you get that"? Right: He wrote, "Where did you get that?"

Wrong: Did you say, "Ship at once?" Right: Did you say, "Ship at once"?

Wrong: Did he write, "We accept."? Right: Did he write, "We accept"?

Wrong: We removed the sign, "Fire Sale!", and then left. Right: We removed the sign, "Fire Sale!" and then left.

2. A question or exclamation within a sentence, whether directly quoted or parenthetical, retains at the end the same mark of punctuation it would have if it stood alone.

Right: When he inquired, "How soon can you make delivery?"

I immediately wired our factory.

Right: His continual promises (Bad luck to him!) have been

continually broken.

Right: The question, How can we do it? still remains to be answered.

Note.—When a parenthesis ends a sentence, the closing punctuation mark is placed outside the parenthesis, unless the pair of parentheses incloses a whole parenthetical expression.

He sent the letter the same day (April 3). This point is fully covered by the contract. (See clause 15.)

3. An indirect quotation of a question or exclamation does not retain the original mark.

> Wrong: He asked whether this could be done? Right: He asked whether this could be done. Right: He asked, "Can this be done?"

4. To separate from the context any quoted word or short phrase, use quotation marks only.

Right: We introduce no "cut and dried" system. Right: Distinguish between "affect" and "effect."

Uses of the Apostrophe (')

1. To indicate the omission of letters in a word, as in an abbreviation, use the apostrophe.

Right: We will join the Eastern Ass'n if we are allowed to.

Note.—The apostrophe, in forming possessives, really indicates an omission. "John's book" is a contraction of 151

"John, his book." [See also page 94 on the spelling of possessives.]

2. Apostrophes are properly omitted from abbreviations that have become recognized as such and have been established by usage.

Mr., Messrs., jr., Ky.

Note.—No apostrophe is required in any abbreviation that is merely a contraction of a word with no letters omitted from the part that remains. When an apostrophe is used in any abbreviation it should be placed where the letters were omitted. For example, advertisement is abbreviated to ad. or to adv't, not ad'vt; association to ass'n, not as'sn. Moreover, if an apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of letters in a contraction, the period should not be used after the contraction.

Y'rs for years, disc't for discount, for'd for forward.

- 3. An apostrophe is not used with the possessive pronouns theirs, ours, yours, his, hers, its. Do not confuse the pronoun its with the contraction it's (it is). One, used as a pronoun, forms its possessive case in the regular way, as, one's.
- 4. To indicate the plural of figures, letters, signs, etc., use the apostrophe.

Right: He had only three 5's on his card. Right: Cross your t's and dot your i's.

Note.—Numbers may also be spelled out, as follows: fives, sixes, ones [see page 95].

5. The apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of figures from the dates of the century, as in '96 for 1896.

Uses of the Question Mark (?)

1. After every complete interrogatory sentence use the question mark.

Right: How many men have you interviewed to-day?

Note.—After the rhetorical question or "question of courtesy," which is really a request, a period is used instead of a question mark.

Right: Will you kindly take care of this for us at your early convenience.

2. The question mark inclosed in parentheses suggests doubt as to the accuracy of the preceding expression.

The company was founded in 1852 (?) and moved to Chicago in 1866.

This token of respect (?) was received in silence.

Uses of the Hyphen (-)

- 1. The hyphen (-) is used to indicate that the word or the part of a word following is to be joined with the preceding word or part.
- 2. Use the hyphen when a word must be divided at the end of a line. [See "Dividing Words at the Ends of the Lines," page 100.]

- 3. Use the hyphen in compounding certain words or expressions. [See "Compound or Hyphenated Words," page 103.]
- 4. Hyphens are now omitted from many words formerly regarded as compounds.

Goodby, warlike, semiannual.

- 5. Never divide a word except at the end of a syllable. The hyphen belongs at the end of the first line, not at the beginning of the second.
- 6. To save repetition, the hyphen may be used in a series of numbers to indicate the omission of the first part of the number, as in "Coupons were clipped from bonds numbered 549210, -11,-12,-13,-14."
- 7. Whenever, to save repetition, the second part of a hyphenated compound word or expression is omitted, the hyphen is used to indicate that the second part is to follow.

He sold all of his two- and three-year-old horses. The left- and right-hand sides of the office were lined with desks.

Note.—In these instances be sure to leave a space between the hyphen and "and."

8. To secure the effect of deliberateness, a word or phrase may be spaced out with hyphens.

Consider this question s-l-o-w-l-y a-n-d c-a-r-e-f-u-l-l-y.

9. To give the effect of novelty and flippancy, a series of related words may be compounded by the use of hyphens.

This is a cross-my-heart once-in-a-lifetime opportunity.

Other Punctuation

1. To lay stress upon a word that is not otherwise emphasized, underlining may be used.

We will let you be the judge.

2. To indicate the omission of words that cannot be supplied by the reader, and that are not considered relevant or necessary to his understanding of the passage, use a line of dots (periods).

Right: He reported: "There is no advantage in ordering fuel . . . at present prices."

3. Marks of punctuation, with the exception of quotation marks, should never come at the beginning of a line; they belong with the preceding words at the end of the preceding line. This rule holds with the hyphen used at the end of a line when a word has to be broken.

Good Style in Punctuation

Punctuation is largely a matter of judgment, but a writer should be consistent in his practice. He should also avoid tendencies which are contrary to those of general usage. The present tendency is toward a loose system in which marks are used as little as possible. Too little punctuation is dangerous because it may result in

obscurity or ambiguity. Too much punctuation, on the other hand, may conceal the idea and retard the reader's progress. The safe principle is to avoid using a mark unless it clarifies or re-enforces the idea.

Double punctuation, such as the comma with the dash (,—), is generally to be avoided. The period that indicates an abbreviation, however, may be used with any other mark, but not with another period.

Capitalization

- 1. Capital letters are an important device for securing emphasis. By their size and contrast to the small letters they help to call attention to ideas and words which are regarded as important. Usage has established certain rules of capitalization, but there is still room for the exercise of personal judgment. As with all other means of emphasis, the value of capitals lies in using them sparingly; too much emphasis results in no emphasis. The tendency of modern business English is expressed by the general rule: When in doubt do not capitalize.
- 2. Capitalize the first word of every sentence, of every complete direct quotation, of every line of poetry, and of every paragraph (even though the paragraph consists of a clause).

Right: The manager wired, "We cannot obtain the sugar."

Right: "You will see," he asserted, "a great change."

[The second part of an interrupted quotation does not have a capital unless it is a word that would be capitalized in any case.]

Note.—In formal resolutions capitalize Whereas, Resolved, and the word immediately following each one, as

well as the first word of every paragraph. (Formal resolutions are usually composed in a single sentence, though they may occupy pages.)

3. Capitalize every important word in the title of a book, article, periodical, or the like.

Right: Imagination in Business; At the Sign of the Dollar; the Saturday Evening Post; the Chicago Tribune; The Man Who Was.

Note.—The is not considered a part of the title in the case of most periodicals.

4. Capitalize all proper names, including nicknames, and all words derived from them.

Right: England, English, Paris, Parisienne, James, Cecil Rhodes, Northcliffe, Dixie Flyer, Elizabethan, Maid of Athens, Old Man Eloquent.

NOTE 1.—Derivations that have lost their suggestion of the individual person or thing are not capitalized. For example: china (dishes), dahlia, pasteurize, boycott.

Note 2.—Foreign names like de Maupassant, Van Dyke, van Dyke, von Liebig, Le Sage, etc., should be capitalized according to the practice of the one who bears the name, provided his practice is ascertainable. His precedent is particularly important in addressing letters to him. Arbitrary rules should not stand in the way of proper courtesy. In general, however, all prepositions except *von* may be capitalized when *not* preceded by a forename, initials, or title. When so preceded only *La*, *Le*, and *Van* are usually capitalized.

- 5. Capitalize all titles of office or distinction when used with a proper name.
 - Right: Governor Coolidge, Sir Thomas Lipton, Colonel Scott, Senator Underwood, Lord Byron, Dean Joseph French Johnson, LL.D.
- 6. Capitalize names of oceans, rivers, streets, churches, hotels, and similar things having an individuality that can be identified. Do not capitalize the general word standing for a class of objects.

Right: Atlantic Ocean, Hudson River, Fifth Avenue, Wall Street, Hotel Astor, St. Paul's Cathedral, Rotary Club, League of Nations, Treaty of Versailles, the Republican Party, the Sixteenth Amendment.

Right: Upon the river, across the street, going to church, at his club, offered an amendment, the republican form of government.

Note.—In the ease of geographical names the modern tendency is to eapitalize only the specific name. For example: Fifth avenue, Hudson river, Wall st.

7. Capitalize the names of months and days. Capitalize the names of seasons when referring to a specific season, but not when referring to the season in general. Capitalize points of the compass when referring to specific sections, but not when referring to directions.

Right: We started north on the first Monday in March.

Right: In the South the winter is mild.

Right: Our worst season was the Winter of 1918.

8. Capitalize a general name, such as those included in rule 6, when it refers definitely to a specific individual, even though that individual is not named.

Right: The King is dead. Long live the King.

[But: A cat may look at a king.]

Right: He made his money on the Street [Wall Street].

Right: Just off the Avenue [Fifth Avenue]. Right: The President favors this amendment.

9. Capitalize names of the Deity, and personal pronouns referring to the Deity, unless the name immediately precedes.

Right: The Lord be praised. Right: Praised be His name.

Note.—Here also distinguish between names of the individual and names of the general class. For example: "The Pilgrims worshiped God. Their descendants have been accused of worshiping the god of commercialism."

10. Capitalize any common noun used by personification as a proper name.

Right: Our people are ruled by Selfishness.

- 11. It is not necessary to capitalize a.m. (before noon), p.m. (after noon), or such abbreviations as c. o. d. (cash on delivery), b/l (bill of lading); in fact, the general trend is toward the use of fewer capitals.
- 12. The abbreviations Jr. (Junior) and Sr. (Senior) when used as a part of a name (Charles M. Niles, Jr.) may or may not be capitalized. Newspaper usage is generally to use a small letter, as $Henry\ B$. Stout, jr.
- 13. Stress may be increased by setting a word entirely in capitals.

We will let YOU be the judge.

Chapter IX

Miscellaneous Information

Points About Telephoning

In some offices it is a part of the stenographer's duties to handle incoming and outgoing telephone calls. If such is the case in your office, the following points may increase your efficiency:

- 1. Be prompt in answering the call. If you are in the midst of some typing, stop your work immediately and go to the telephone. A delay to finish a few more words may cause the loss of the call. Moreover, it is not courteous to make the other person wait. If the call comes while you are taking dictation, your action depends upon your knowledge of the dictator. Some dictators want to finish the idea they have started on; but most business men appreciate the value of answering a call promptly and are glad to see you prompt in this respect. In any case, excuse yourself to the dictator as soon as possible, and answer the telephone.
- 2. Pick up the receiver with your left hand so that in case you need to write down a message you can do so with your right hand. It is usually advisable to have your pencil with you in case there is a message, and it is

also wise to have a pad of paper handy. It is rather annoying to the other person to be compelled to wait while you are trying to find pencil and paper.

- 3. It is not necessary to say "Hello." It is preferable to say "Mr. Blank's office," or "Blank Company," or "Blank Department," or whatever is most suitable according to your experience. Such a statement immediately informs the listener that he has the right place.
- 4. Be careful of your voice. It is not necessary to speak loudly—in fact, a low, restrained voice is more distinct over the telephone than a loud voice. Your lips should be close to or nearly inside the mouthpiece of the transmitter. Speak slowly, clearly, and with every word well enunciated. From your own experience you know how vexing it is trying to understand a person who speaks indistinctly over the telephone. And knowing that, you should realize the value of speaking distinctly. If the other person asks you to repeat, don't shout, for shouting makes the matter worse. Try, rather, to speak more slowly, enunciate more clearly, and speak in a lower tone. The habit of slow, deliberate, careful talking must be acquired.
- 5. Cultivate the tone of your "telephone voice." Be careful of the inflection of your voice. Don't be curt or snappish. Be very courteous and speak gently. You will thus make the telephoning more agreeable to the other person. A pleasant voice, "a voice with a smile," is of great value in telephoning, for it shows that the listener's feelings are being considered, and it aids in transacting the business quickly, easily, and pleasantly for both persons.

- 6. If the other person wishes to have you take down a message, make sure that you understand it and that you write it down correctly. If a name is unfamiliar to you, have the other person spell it out. And after you have finished, read back the message to make certain that it is correct. If you have trouble in understanding the speaker, don't get flurried, but keep on trying to get the message.
- 7. All messages should be put in writing immediately lest they be forgotten or reported incorrectly. Put down the time of receipt of message in ease it seems important. And then see that the message is given to the proper person or that it is placed on his desk where he will be sure to find it.
- 8. If the eall is for a person who is then in the office, ask for the name of the caller so that you can then tell Mr. Blank that Mr. Dash wishes to speak to him. It sometimes happens that Mr. Blank is busy and is unable to come to the 'phone just then. Explain this to the caller and ask him whether he wishes to hold the wire, whether he will eall again, whether he will leave his telephone number so that Mr. Blank can eall him, or whether he wishes to give you the message. Take the responsibility upon yourself to see that the call is properly handled.
- 9. If you are asked to get a certain person on the 'phone, make sure that you get him, and not the operator of the private board exchange. When you get him on the wire, say: "This is Mr. Blank's office speaking. Mr. Blank wishes to speak to you." And then get Mr. Blank to take up the receiver promptly.

Telegrams

Special care should be used in the taking of dictation and in the transcribing of telegrams, for a small mistake may easily cause a large financial loss or much trouble.

No salutation or complimentary close is used. The entire telegram should be typed in capitals and with no punctuation marks. The use of punctuation marks is a fruitful cause of errors, and telegraph companies expressly state that they will not be responsible for the correct transmitting of punctuation. In some instances where it is essential that the message should be punctuated, the punctuation mark should be spelled out, as follows:

SEE CLAUSE FIVE LAST LINE SHOULD READ QUOTES AND COMMA ALSO COMMA TWENTY-FIVE PER CENT IN ADDITION PERIOD UNQUOTE PLEASE CHANGE BEFORE SIGNING

The receiver of the telegram will read it as follows:

See clause number five. Last line of it should read "and, also, twenty-five per cent in addition." Please change before signing.

Four copies of the telegram should usually be made: the original is given to the telegraph company; the second is sent by mail to the person addressed, in confirmation; the third is sent to the files; and the fourth is sent to the cashier or bookkeeper, to be used in checking against the bills rendered by the telegraph company.

Use of Proof Marks to Indicate Corrections or Changes

The dictator may be in the habit of indicating, by the use of proof marks, that certain corrections or changes are

to be made in the typed letter. In order that you may know the kind of correction or change desired, the following list of proof marks is given:

Manle

7.6 --- 7-

Mark in	Mark in	Meaning
Margin	Text	
Cap l.c.	-	A line under a word or letter means "Capitalize."
l.c.	1	A line drawn through a capital means that the letter should be made a small letter.
4	1	A line drawn through a word or letter means that it should be erased.
stet	.4 604	A line of dots under a word or letter means that the change marked was wrong, and that the word or letter should be left as it was.
	^	Indicates an insertion.
house =1	^	Insert the letter k .
house	11	Insert the word house.
=/	Λ	Insert a hyphen.
0	^	Insert a period.
5	^	Insert a comma.
	~	Insert a superior character, such as quotation marks, apostrophe, etc.
3	V	Insert an apostrophe.
L	L.	Bring word or words or line more to the left-
7	2	Bring word or words or line more to the right.

THE STENOGRAPHER'S MANUAL

Mark in Margin	Mark in Text	Meaning
#	^	Separate words or letters.
	\Box	Bring words or letters together.
tr.	n	Transpose words or letters.
9	92	New paragraph.
noH	5	Continue in the same paragraph. The line unites the two portions of the text.
See	۸	Compare with copy. Words are omitted.

l.e.

Our sales in the west have been so greatly fifected by the coal strike that we are unable to diagree what the demand will be in the forms. We prefer therefor to run the risk of logsing some sales to overstocking ourselves. Last year welonly had twenty wo of your machines left unsold on our hands, but this year its apparent that we shall have more than two hundred.

3/2/5

EXAMPLE OF PROOF-READ LETTER

Our sales in the West have been so greatly affected by the coal strike that we are unable to gauge what the demand will be in the spring. We prefer, therefore, to run the risk of losing some sales to overstocking ourselves. Last year we had only twenty-two of your machines left unsold on our hands, but this year it's apparent that we shall have more than two hundred.

THE STENOGRAPHER'S MANUAL

Keep Your Desk in Good Order

A workman is usually marked by the condition in which he keeps his working place. If his tools are slovenly arranged and scattered about, if his work bench is in disorder, it shows that he is not orderly, neat, and efficient. The good workman is neat—and he is efficient partly because he can lay his hands on the necessary tool immediately. So with you. Your desk is your work bench. Don't have your tools (your pencils, erasers, stationery, etc.) all jumbled together in the drawers. Keep everything neatly arranged in its proper place so that you can find it when you are in a hurry. If you are called for dictation don't be compelled to waste time looking for your notebook and pencils.

And keep the top of your desk clean, too. Don't have odds and ends of papers, pencils, carbon sheets, etc., scattered over it while you are working there. A clean top inspires good work. Be orderly about these

things.

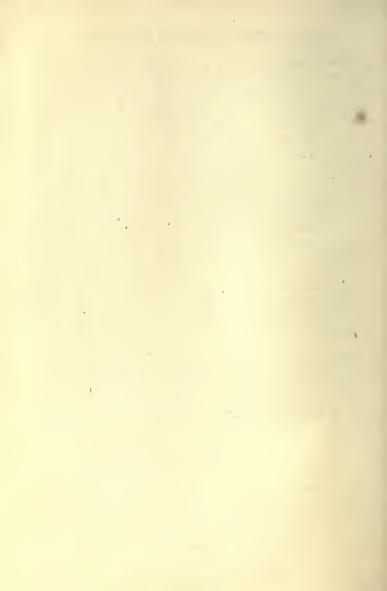
When you leave the office at night, be sure that everything is in its proper place in the drawers of your desk, that there is nothing on top of the desk that doesn't belong there, and that your machine is protected from the dust that will arise when the office is being cleaned that night.

Study Your Employer's Business

If you are really interested in your work, if you are ambitious to advance, if you wish to make a larger salary, study your employer's business. Try to learn as much as you can about the way the business is carried on. Go to the library and draw out books

THE STENOGRAPHER'S MANUAL

on your business, for the more you know about the business the more valuable you will become. Take an interest in the business and try the best you can to help the employer. Do these things and your future is assured.



A

Abbreviations, of first names, 53, 107; of Avenue and Street, 56; of Messieurs, 49; incorrect forms, in salutation, 58; in complimentary close, 60; not allowed in formal official letters, 66; use of, 107-113; punctuation of, 107; plurals of, 107; list of, 108-112

Accuracy, value of, 5; questions about, 7; in taking dictation, 28; in transcription, 33; in spelling, 71–73; after work, 113 Address, inside, 48–56 (also see

Inside Address); on envelope, 63 Agreeable personality, value of, 9;

questions about, 11

Appearance, personal, 23; of work, 37

Attendance, 20

Attention of, position of in letter, 62; on envelope, 64 Attitude toward your work, 22

 \mathbf{B}

Body of the letter, 58-60; placing on page, 43; indention, 58; spacing, 58; second sheet, 58, 60 Brackets, uses of, 148

C

Capitalization, of abbreviations, 107; uses of, 156–159

Care of machine, 39; of notebooks,

Changes and erasures, 37 City, incorrect use of in address, 56 Colon, uses of, 142–144

Comma, uses of, 134–141

Complimentary close, 60; position of, 60; forms of, 60; incorrect abbreviations, 60; punctuation of, 60; in official letters, 60, 66 Compounding words, 103–106;

Compounding words, 103–10 compound titles, 106

Conduct in the office, 17; office rules, 17; punctuality, 19; attendance, 20; using telephone, 21; "visiting," 21; attitude toward work, 22; conduct toward other workers, 23; personal appearance, 23

Contractions, spelling of, 107, 151, 152; punctuation of, 107

Courtesy, 9

D

Dash, uses of, 146-147
Date of letter, 46; position of, 46; points about writing date, 47
Days, abbreviations of, 112
Deportment in the office, 16
Desk, good order of, 166
Dictated material, editing of, 35; 163-165
Dictation, importance of, 25; he

Dictation, importance of, 25; be prepared, 25; manner when taking, 27; points on, 28; noting instructions, 30

Diligence, value of, 13; questions about, 15
Disputing with dictator, 40
Dividing words at ends of lines, 100-103

E

Editing dictated material, 35, 163–165

Encl., position of, 62

Envelope, size of, 63; address on, 63; other matter on, 64; illustrations of, 65

Erasures and changes, 37

Esq., use of, 49

Exclamation point, uses of, 145–

F

Figures, sums, etc., spelling of, 95–96
Folding letter, 62–63
Foreign words used in English, 78–81
Formal official letters, 66

G

Grammar, need of, 34

 \mathbf{H}

Heading of letter, 46–47

Honorable, proper use of as title, 55
Hyphen, used in compounding
words, 103–106; uses of, 153–155
Hyphenated words, 103–106

Ι

Incl., position of, 62 Indenting paragraphs, 58 Informal official letters, 66; illustration of, 67 Initials of typist, 61 Inside address, 48-56; position of, 48; arrangement of, 48; titles in, 48-50; abbreviations of first names, 53; punetuation of, 56; use of City, 56; position of in official letters, 66

Ţ

Judgment, value of, 15

Machine, care of, 39

L

Letter, mechanical make-up of, 42-70 (see Mechanical Makeup for specific references)

M

Manners, 10
Margins, 43, 58; of report, 70
Mechanical display of reports, 66–70; illustrations of, 68, 69; points about, 70
Mechanical make-up of letter, 42–70; placing letter on page, 43; parts of, 46; heading, 46–47; inside address, 48–56; titles, 48–55; the salutation, 57–58; the body of the letter, 58–60; the complimentary close, 60; miscellaneous

cal display of reports, 66-70 Messrs., proper use of as title, 49 Miss, as title, 48 Misspelling (see Spelling) Misused words, 114-132 Months, abbreviations of, 112 Mrs., as title, 48

points, 62-63; envelope, 63-64; official letters, 64-66; mechani-

N

Names that sound alike, 29; getting them correct, 29, 157, note 2

Necessity for self-analysis, 6 Notebooks, care of, 40 Numbers, spelling of plurals of, 95-96; when and when not to spell out, 96-100

0

Office rules, 17 Office supplies, 40 Official letters, 64-66; when used, 64; stationery of, 64; formal, 66; mechanical make-up of, 66; informal, 66; illustration of, 67

Paragraphs, indention of, 58 Parentheses, uses of, 147-148 Parenthetical material, punctuation of, 150-151 Period, uses of, 144-145; with abbreviations, 107 Personal appearance, 23 Personality, value of, 9; questions about, 11 Placing letter on page, 43 Plurals of foreign words, spelling of, 81-82; of figures, sums, etc., 95-96; of abbreviations, 107 Possessives, spelling of, 94-95 Postscript, position of, 62 Professor, proper use of as title, 55 Proof marks, 163-165; list of, 164-165; illustrations of use, 165 P.S., not needed, 62 Punctuality, 19 Punctuation, of inside address, 56; of salutation, 58; of complimentary close, 60; of contractions, 107; uses of punctuation, 133-156; comma, 134-141; of restrictive clause, 139; semicolon, 141-142; colon, 142-144; period, 144-145; exclamation point, 145-146; dash, 146-147;

parentheses, 147–148; brackets, 148; quotation marks, 148–150; quoted or parenthetical material, 150–151; apostrophe, 151–153; question mark, 153; hyphen, 153–155; other punctuation, 155; good style, 155–156

O

Qualities of a good stenographer, 1, 5 Question mark, uses of, 153 Quotation marks, uses of, 148–150 Quoted material, punctuation of, 150–151

\mathbf{R}

Reports, display of, 66–70
Restrictive clause, punctuation of, 139
Reverend, proper use of as title, 55

Rules, office, 17 S Salutation, 57-58; forms of, 57; position of, 57; incorrect forms, 57-58; punctuation of, 58; in official letters, 58, 66; in informal official letters, 66 Second sheets, 58, 60 Self-analysis, necessity for, 6 Semicolon, uses of, 141-142 Signature, 60-62; titles in, 66 Spacing between paragraphs, 58 Spelling, 71-113; importance of, 71; technical and trade words, 73; words correctly spelled in two or more ways, 73-78; foreign words, 78-81; plurals of, 81-82; words of similar sound, 82-88; words commonly misspelled, 89-92; words ending in "able" or "ible," 92-93; pos-

sessives, 94-95; plural of figures, etc., 95-96; spelling out numbers, etc., 96-100; dividing words, 100-103; compound or hyphenated words, 103-106; use of abbreviations, 107-113
States, abbreviations of, 111, 112

\mathbf{T}

Taking dictation, 25; preparation for, 25; manner when, 27; points on, 28; noting instructions, 30

Telegrams, 163

Telephone for personal calls, use of, 21

Telephoning, points about, 160–162
Titles in address, 48–56; position
of, 48; common, 48; Mrs. and
Miss, 48–49; Esq., 49; Messrs.,
49; with corporations, 40, 52;
business titles, 52; initials, 52;
proper use of, 53–55; position
of in official letter, 56, 66; compound titles, 106

Transcribing and typing, 32;

judged by, 32; accuracy in, 33; mistakes in grammar, 34; editing dictated material, 35; paragraphing letter, 36; punctuation and capitalization, 36; reading completed work, 37; appearance of work, 37; keeping machine in good order, 39; don't dispute with dictator, 40; care of notebooks, 40; office supplies, 40

Trustworthiness, value of, 12; questions about, 13

Typing and transcribing, 32 (see Transcribing and Typing)

V

Value of accuracy, 5 "Visiting" in the office, 21

W

Words, spelled in two or more ways, 73–78; misused, 114–132 Words, spelling of (see Spelling)



UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES

THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

This book is DUE on the last date stamped below

HUG 24 1948 8-17-48

Form L-9-15m-2,'36

Z56 K55s

Kilduff -

The stenographer's manual.



ELES, CALIF.

Year of the first

Z 56 K55s

LOS Calif.

